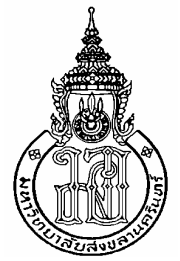

Participation Acts and Communication Strategies in Academic Classroom Discussions: A Case Study of Students in the Master of Arts Program in Applied Linguistics at Prince of Songkla University

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A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics

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ABSTRACT

This case study provides a picture of what goes on in the academic classroom discussions (ACDs) by exploring and describing 11 Master of Arts graduate students' (GSs) observable non-verbal and verbal participation acts (PAs) and communication strategies (CSs) in the Master of Arts program (MA) in Applied Linguistics at Prince of Songkla University (PSU). The data consisted of 255-minutes videotaped recordings of the ACDs obtained from three courses in academic year of 2007. The analytical frameworks were based on speech act theory, systemic-functional grammar, value of non-verbal communication and notions of CSs. In order to explore the types and extents of PAs and CSs used in the ACDs as well as the typical types of PAs and CSs used across the three courses, qualitative and quantitative analyses were undertaken.

The data revealed that 26 types of PAs were used to different extents in the ACDs. Four most and four least frequently used PAs were identified. Meanwhile, 12 types of CSs with the three most and three least frequently used types were identified in the ACDs. It was found that the overall used types of PAs and CSs used by the GSs were diverse, which suggested that the GSs were notably active in participating in the ACDs and competent in getting across their messages or coping with communication difficulties or the needs of enhancing communication effectiveness. Nevertheless, a closer investigation on the most and the least frequently used types of PAs and CSs suggested that the GSs were active but not critical and interactive in the ACDs. It was found that the 11 GSs' use of PAs and CSs in the

ACDs was statistically different. To explain the variations of the PAs and CSs used by the GSs in the ACDs, the GSs' linguistic repertoire and command of subject knowledge, educational and professional experience were taken into account.

Five types of PAs were used typically across the three courses. Furthermore, it was found that the use of PAs was consistent while CSs were used irregularly across the three courses. To discuss the regularity of PAs use across the three courses, the nature of the ACDs, the academic expectations from the MA program and the course lecturers were considered. To interpret the irregularity of the CSs use across the three courses, the differences of the discussion topics, the degrees of the lecturers' scaffolding as well as the differences of the GSs already-possessed linguistic and subject knowledge were considered.

Pedagogical implications were discussed and trends for future research were recommended.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale of the Study

Globally, thanks to the advent of communicative language teaching approach in the 1980s, contemporary language teaching is becoming increasingly communicative and participatory (Ernst, 1994; Morita, 2000, 2004), and the learner's ability to actively and critically participate in academic classroom oral activities such as seminars has become a must and a common course objective (Basturkmen, 2002, 2003). As a result, the traditional view that students are receivers of knowledge from instructors has been replaced by a belief that learners should be actively involved in collaborative problem-solving groups and in constructing their own knowledge in academic learning activities (Wilson, 1989, cited in Basturkmen, 1999; Innes, 2007). In Basturkmen's (1999) words, "the seminar/discussion mode of instruction requires students to be more active and interactive and thus 'the ability to participate in and follow academic discussions can be critical for students' (p.63).

Kim (2006) conducted an academic oral communication needs survey of East Asian international graduate students in the United States of America and ranked participating in whole-class discussions and engaging in small-group discussion as the most common academic oral classroom activities. Similarly, learners' contribution in classroom interaction is to be "encouraged, expected and extended" in recent policy-led initiatives in the National Literacy Strategy in England (Dufficy, 2005). The shift to a participatory form of studying and to power sharing in the postgraduate classroom clearly centers on two fundamental aspects: the question of partly letting go on the tutors' part and of taking on more responsibility on the

learners' side (Klerk, 1995). However, although most lecturers attach great importance to and often allocate grades to participation in classroom discussions, it has been repeatedly noticed that most students do not participate actively (Caspi, et al., 2008) or encounter difficulties in participating in classroom discussions (Ferris, 1998). For instance, Ferris's (1998) survey of the language needs of ESL university students in America found that 65-75% students admitted to being overwhelmed by class discussion participation. Crombie et al. (2003) reported that 64% of the students only occasionally asked or responded to a question in the classroom. Caspi et al. (2006) also noted that about 55% of the students seldom participate in class activities. Research similarly points to cultural factors as affecting learners' willingness to take up opportunities to communicate (Ferris & Tagg, 1996; Liu & Littlewood 1997; Jones, 1999; Cheng, 2000, Jackson, 2002). Asian L2 learners, in particular, have long been reported as being reticent and passive communicators in speaking activities (Liu & Littlewood 1997; Cheng, 2000), appeared to be reluctant to speak up in class (Tsui, 1996) or to be unwilling to work in group tasks (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). Additionally, Jones (1999) noticed that graduate students do participate in class discussion like seminars, but their participation is overwhelmed by comprehension check exchanges which are unitary rather than diverse.

A broad review of classroom spoken discourse research reflects that a large body of studies have been devoted to exploring the impact of gender differences, learner proficiency, the proportion of student and teacher talk on the traditional I(initiation)-R(response)-E(evaluation) structure in classroom interaction (Candela, 1995). Moreover, most of these studies are grounded in discourse analysis and the ethnography of communication in native-speaking and English as Second Language (ESL) contexts with students at or under tertiary level (e.g. Fassinger, 1995; Crombie et al., 2003; Caspi, et al., 2006, 2008). Besides, many studies have been carried out on learners' verbal acts as communication strategies with artificial data derived from elicitation or controlled tasks such as role plays, story-telling activities, picture

descriptions and the like. Although the use of gestures is widely recognized in everyday interactions and various systems of classification have been proposed (Verderber, 1993; DeVito, 1994; Berko, Wolvin, D. & Wolvin, R., 1995; Barker & Gaut, 1996; Ruben & Stewart, 2006), little is known about how students use these gestures in academic interactions (Fassinger, 1995; Wee, 2004). According to Kumpulainen and Mika (1999), peer interaction has already attracted extensive attention in different educational contexts with diverse research goals, theoretical perspectives and methodological orientations. The focus is rather on specific features of the interaction and their relationship contributing to students' learning achievement than on the development of the actual interaction process or meaning construction. Consequently, the temporal process of interaction has not been highlighted in such studies, especially, how students participate in and communicate to get their message across in classroom discussions in terms of non-verbal and verbal behavior. Thus, there is a need to bridge the existing gap to investigate natural conduct of peer interaction in an academic setting by looking at participants' moment-by-moment behavior.

The foregoing review of the global environment suggests a need to conduct the present research, then it is necessary to take a closer look at the local context to see whether or not it is feasible to carry out this case study. According to the program orientation and lecturers who have been teaching in the program for many years, the Master of Arts program in Applied Linguistics (hereafter MA) at Prince of Songkla University (PSU) in Thailand is theory-and research-oriented. The academic classroom discussions (hereafter ACDs) functioning to foster the GSs' active participation and critical examination of academic issues were preferred by many lecturers and actualized in different forms, such as lecturer-fronted whole-class discussions of predetermined topics, student-led discussions of teacher-assigned or self-chosen topics. It is believed that GS interlocutors as a group serve as resource pool that is greater than the resources possessed by any single member. It is suggested

by Tan (2003) that a class has vast resources which should be properly-exploited for teaching and learning purposes. The significance of group discussions are summarized as follows: a) groups can exert a very beneficial influence on the members: they serve as reference sources that provide messages and information; and b) classroom discussions provide the GSs with a forum to discuss and hear different minds so that they can modify their attitudes and understandings on certain academic issues. In this light, the ACDs are believed to be useful for the GSs to expand their academic horizon and enable them to think logically, speak confidently, and thus reap rewards from thinking creatively on their feet in the real academic world. In the second semester of 2006 academic year, lecturers of three courses in the MA program ran courses in forms of whole-class discussions over the GSs' self-chosen topics of individual research interest and lecturer-assigned topics concerning English teaching and learning. All these conditions provided locally a feasible setting for the present study.

Personally, since my first semester of studying in the MA program, my interest was captured by how my peer GSs participated in the classroom discussions because classroom discussion was absent from both my learning and teaching experience. As a mainland Chinese student, I have been accustomed to be seen only but not heard in classroom due to various reasons: the traditional role of teachers (mentors of morals and authorities of knowledge), students' lack of questioning (feel inferior and uncomfortable in participating) or no/lack of indication of understanding (being afraid of making mistakes and losing face) (Gieve & Clark, 2005; Huang, 2004; Littlewood, 1999). Consequently, my frustration at the beginning stage of the classroom discussions resulted from my inability to join in with discussions when my peers were actively asking questions or contributing opinions and lecturers were orchestrating by sharing their ideas and encouraging more participation. In that period, I lacked confidence and found myself asking: "Are you an English major?" "Have you been a teacher of college English for six years?" In order to participate actively

and meaningfully in classroom discussions, I purposefully observed my peers' and the lecturers' ways of asking questions, expressing opinions and making comments. Finally, I realized that participating in classroom discussions demands not only linguistic or content knowledge but also knowledge about what, how, when and to whom to speak. The meaningfulness and effectiveness of an individual's contribution to the ACDs also have much to do with skills in communication. Thus，how to participate in classroom discussions effectively and meaningfully as well as how to bridge the communication gaps with different strategies, that is, participation acts (henceforth PAs) and communication strategies (hereafter CSs) in the ACDs in a Thai context have become my thesis research interest area (see definitions of PAs and CSs in section 1.6).

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The overall objective of the present study is to explore what happens in the ACDs in an MA program in Thailand. To be specific, the purpose of this study was twofold: a) to identify types of verbal and non-verbal PAs and CSs used by the GSs to participate in and communicate in the ACDs in three courses; and b) to establish the variations of PAs and CSs across the three courses by addressing the following questions:

1.2.1 What types of PAs and CSs were used by the GSs in the ACDs? To what extent were they used? Were there variations of PAs and CSs used by the GSs in the ACDs?

1.2.2 Were there typical types of PAs and CSs used across the three courses? If so, what were they?

1.3 Scope of the Study

The present study aimed to provide some insights into the happenings in the ACDs in a Thai academic context by exploring the GSs' verbal and non-verbal PAs and CSs in the ACDs. The verbal and non-verbal PAs and CSs in this study were limited to those observable. The data covered in this study were approximately 255 minutes of ACDs selected from 16 hours of ACDs from three courses in the MA program in Applied Linguistics at PSU. The data were authentic because they were collected from naturally occurring classroom events. The data selected for the analysis were comparable in terms of the length of discussion time, being complete with full attendance of 11 GSs as a group of MA candidates, and each ACD included active participation of at least three GSs with each GS having at least one chance of being a presenter.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The study may contribute to academic language classroom research literature in the following aspects.

Firstly, an innovative approach to spoken academic classroom discourse analysis grounded in speech act theory, systemic functional linguistics, particularly in ideational and interpersonal meanings and notions of communication strategy was adopted in describing the happenings of the academic interactions.

Secondly, as far as PAs are concerned, since the focus of previous classroom research has been intensively on the proportion of teacher-student talk, the interest of this study was directed to students' moment-to-moment interaction. And the traditional scope of speech act theory which focuses solely on linguistic behavior was extended to cover both non-verbal and verbal behavior in a specific academic setting.

Thirdly, the traditional scope of CS research was expanded beyond linguistic gaps emphasizing message exchange, beyond individuals or dyads to groups and beyond experiments with informants at or below tertiary level to graduate informants. In doing so, an insightful view was projected about the features of naturally occurring classroom discussions involving 11 GSs as a group of MA candidates in a Thai academic context.

Fourthly, this case study might be pedagogically beneficial in terms of syllabus design and academic classroom discussions. From syllabus with certain types of PAs and CSs prescribed and exemplified, people can anticipate what the like in the ACDs is. For lecturers, this study may show what types of PAs and CSs should be encouraged and fostered to enhance effective and meaningful participation and communication in classroom speaking events, especially in whole-class discussions. For learners, they can be oriented about how to participate and communicate in ACDs effectively and meaningfully.

1.5 Limitation of the Study

1.5.1 Limitation of Data Collection

Technically, for one thing, since the videotaping of ACDs data in this study were collected by using one camera which was located at the front of the classroom, some segments of the ACDs could be missed due to the need of change for a videotape. Meanwhile, some GSs' non-verbal behavior may have not been fully captured because GS 11 who were near the camera posed as an obstacle of view (see Appendix A for GSs' seating arrangement in the ACDs).

Additionally, the use of videotaping to collect data may cause the Hawthorne Effect (Borg & Gall, 1989). That is, videotaping conditions might induce a mere fact that GSs were aware that they were participating in a study, so they might alter their performance and therefore invalidate the data. Moreover, they were probably fully aware of the lecturers' expectation about their discussion contribution, so the data could be more assessment-driven and inclined less towards putting on a show for videotaping. Nevertheless, the GSs were made familiar with the videotaping facilities and cameraman in the tryout session of data collection. Hence, it could be safe to say that the Hawthorne Effect might not have as much influence on the data as the GSs' awareness of the lecturers' assessment of their contribution to the discussion pool.

It is noteworthy that the differing extent of the lecturers' scaffolding in facilitating the discussion flow may also have exerted some influence on the GSs' use of PAs and CSs. Moreover, the GSs' awareness that their participation would be assessed by the lecturers and their contribution to the discussion pool would be valued by their peers may lead to the GSs' intentional use of certain types of PAs and CSs. This point can be supported by the fact that there were no occurrences of code-switch strategies in the ACDs though eight Thai GSs share the same mother tongue.

1.5.2 Limitation of Data Analysis

For the data analysis, since the study was basically qualitative with a detailed description of the 11 GSs' use of verbal utterances and non-verbal PAs and CSs including the present researcher as one of the subjects, the data analysis relied heavily on the researcher's knowledge and interpretation of the context and the participants. This could, therefore, be open to different opinions and interpretations. In order to guarantee the accurate interpretation, the identifications of GSs'

non-verbal behavior done by the researcher were checked by adopting stimulated recall method with each GS. Then, the identifications of PAs and CSs were cross-checked with the researcher's two supervisors who were lecturers in the MA program and also quite familiar with the subject. In his sense, the objectivity and accuracy of the researcher's analysis and interpretations of the ACDs data could be ensured.

1.5.4 Limitation of Generalizability

With a small non-random sample of students, the present researcher acknowledges that the generalization of this case study should only be carefully applied. It is said that generalizability is low for most qualitative investigations because qualitative researchers are more concerned with the accurate recording of what actually occurs in the setting rather than "the literal consistency across different observations" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992, p. 48). Although the ACDs examined in this study were selected on the basis of convenience and accessibility, there is no reason to assume that these ACDs do not represent a typical case. However, due to the descriptive and interpretive nature of the qualitative case study, the researcher wishes to place the onus of making generalizations on the readers and have them determine whether the findings are applicable to their concrete situations.

1.6 Definition of Key Terms

In this study, three key terms, namely academic classroom discussions (ACDs), participation acts (PAs), and communication strategies (CSs) were defined as follows.

1.6.1 *Academic Classroom Discussion (ACD)*

Academic classroom discussion (ACD) in this study refers to an oral exploration of academic topics after a graduate student's presentation of self-chosen research articles, lecturer-assigned articles or lecturer-introduced topics as discussion input. The ACDs in this study are information-based in nature with English as the medium and concern aspects of applied linguistics, teaching methodology, and the GSs' personal experience or perspectives of English teaching and learning. The nature of the ACDs was both divergent and convergent depending on the topics of discussions because there were no black-and-white answers or judgmental criteria for questions and opinions settled in the ACDs in this study.

1.6.2 *Participation Acts (PAs)*

Within the realm of this study, the term Participation acts (PAs) was coined to refer to either verbal or non-verbal acts taken by the GSs to participate actively in the ACDs. GSs may participate in the ACDs verbally to perform various acts such as seeking or expressing opinions, seeking or giving information, asking for or making suggestions, giving warnings, and passing the floor. They may also participate non-verbally by mime or gestures.

1.6.3 *Communication Strategies (CSs)*

In this study, it was believed that once a PA took place, communication strategies may come into play when communication breakdowns occur and/or more information is called for because the expression of opinions or delivery of messages cannot be accomplished continuously. In this sense, *communication strategies (CSs)* in this study refer to verbal and non-verbal attempts made by an individual GS to tackle communicative problems of linguistic inadequacy and/or a lack of content knowledge on discussion topics and to get messages across

(e.g. message reduction, self-reformulating), and/or verbal and non-verbal joint efforts made by GSs as interlocutors to keep communication channel open and enhance communication effectiveness by using interactional meaning negotiation mechanics (e.g. seeking/giving clarification and appealing for/giving assistance).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of relevant literature in this chapter covers the following main aspects: speech act theory, systemic-functional linguistics, communicative value of non-verbal behavior in conversation and notions of CSs.

Since it is speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969) that forms the theoretical backdrop of conceptualizing verbal PAs in the present study, the chapter begins with an insight into key ideas about speech act theory, particularly the illocutionary act and its implication in spoken discourse analysis and some existing classifications of illocutionary acts will be reviewed. In addition, Halliday's (1985) notion of systemic-functional linguistics concerning ideational and interpersonal meanings will be covered to support the functional features of linguistic utterances which carry different meanings in communication. Moreover, as PAs in this study also cover GSs' non-verbal participation in ACDs, communicative value of non-verbal behavior in conversation and some functions of non-verbal messages will be elaborated. Thus, the traditional scope of speech act theory which focuses exclusively on linguistic behavior will be extended to include both non-verbal and verbal communicative acts. Then, issues about CSs will be addressed in terms of the definition, identification, classification and some existing taxonomies will be discussed. To the researcher's knowledge, there seems to be no previous research directly relevant to the present study. In this respect, studies which are considered relevant to certain aspects with the current study will be reviewed respectively under each theoretical framework, such as research concerning learner's participation in group or whole-class discussions, gestures in classroom conversations and studies on CSs in naturally occurring interactional activities.

Schoop (2001) proposed that people use language to perform actions and bring about effects on interlocutors in the course of communication rather than merely transmitting linguistic information. The fundamental principle is that language is not only used to exchange information as in reports, statements, etc. but also to perform actions, e.g. promises, orders, declarations. This notion had been addressed by Austin (1962) and Searle's (1969) speech act theory and Halliday's (1985) systemic-functional linguistics.

2.1.1 Insights into Speech Act Theory

Speech act theory is a theory of language introduced by Austin (1962). The basic premise is that language is a mode of action as well as a means of conveying information. Speech act theory is basically concerned with what people "do" with language–with the functions of language, like performatives and constatives. Searle (1969), Austin's student, building upon Austin's notion, proposed a new model including representatives (e.g. asserting), directives (e.g. requesting), commissives (e.g. promising), expressives (e.g. thanking), and declarations (e.g. appointing).

According to Austin (1962), a speech act consists of three components: a) **the locutionary act** (the act of 'saying' something with reference to things); b) **the illocutionary act** (the performance of an act in saying something with intention to interact); and c) **the perlocutionary act** (the consequential effects upon the listener produced by saying something). In essence, a locutionary act has meaning; it produces an understandable utterance. An illocutionary act has force; it carries certain intention or message. A perlocutionary act has consequence; it has an effect upon the listener.

In other words, any speech act is really the performance of several acts at once, distinguished by different aspects of the speaker's intention: there is the act of saying something, what one does by saying it, such as requesting or promising, and how one is trying to affect one's audience.

Similarly, Widdowson (2007) recognized that acts of communication can be pragmatically meaningful in three ways. The first kind of pragmatic meaning is reference, the language being used to talk about something. Simultaneously with the expression of the reference, the person who utters this expression is “performing a kind of communicative or illocutionary act” (p.13). Thirdly, the speaker is not just acting, but acting upon his/her audience in order to bring about a certain state of mind or course of action. That is, “in performing an illocutionary act, s/he is also bringing about a perlocutionary effect” (p.13). So far, it is evident that Widdowson’s (2007) interpretation of the three pragmatic meanings of a communication act shares exactly the same notion as Austin’s (1962) annotation of three components of a speech act. The main elements of Austin’s (1962) speech act theory will be elaborated in the following sections.

In general, speech acts are linguistic acts of communication. To communicate is to express a certain attitude, and the type of speech act being performed corresponds to the type of attitude being expressed. Performing a speech act, in particular an illocutionary act is a matter of having a certain communicative intention in uttering certain words. If the audience recognizes that intention, the intention with which it is performed is fulfilled. Searle (1979, cited in Rajagopalan, 2000) noted the importance of the illocutionary act in communication saying, “the unit of human communication in language is the speech act, of the type called illocutionary act (p.348). Sbisa (2001) also recognized that the term 'illocutionary force', a core term in speech act theory, is generally used to refer to the fact that in the uttering of a sentence, an illocutionary act of a certain kind is performed in verbal interaction. This position is supported by Croddy (2002), who suggested that when a

person employs a language, a fundamental question is what speech act(s) he or she intends to perform. In his view, those which are illocutionary can be particularly informative in answering this question. In a sense, it is the illocutionary act one performs that is important in carrying messages/intention, for example, a statement expressing a belief, a request expressing a desire, and an apology expressing regret. In this light, acts such as asking questions, making suggestions, giving information and the like can all be counted into the repertoire of verbal participation acts in the present study.

2.1.2 Implication of Illocutionary Acts for Spoken Discourse Analysis

Searle (1969) attempted to incorporate speech acts into linguistic theory and promoted the application of speech act theory in discourse analysis. Holding a belief that speech acts are linguistically realized through illocutionary force, he placed speech acts at the center of the study of language and considered the illocutionary act as the core to understanding speech acts. It was recognized by Schiffrin (1994) that speech act theory offers an approach to spoken discourse analysis in which what is said can be segmented into units that have communicative functions. Labov (1972, cited by Teo, 1995) claimed that "discourse is organized on the basis not of utterances themselves but of the actions which the utterances are used to perform" (p.11). Schiffrin (1994) agreed that the essential insight of speech act theory is that language performs illocutionary acts which have force to initiate and carry on interaction. Chapman (2000) further recognized that an illocutionary act is communicatively successful if the speaker's illocutionary intention is recognized by the hearer.

2.1.3 Taxonomy of Illocutionary Acts

Since Searle (1969) promoted the application of speech act theory to discourse analysis, researchers have been enthusiastically attempting to classify speech or illocutionary acts into categories (Schiffirn, 1994). In recent years, the analysis of speech acts has provided researchers with an insightful view of the connections between the forms and functions of linguistic utterances. Klippel (1984), for example, categorized speech acts into three general groups: a) expressing and finding out intellectual and emotional attitudes; b) getting things done; and c) speech acts for particular situations. Speech acts in the first group mainly involve asking questions and giving answers with certain attitudes. Those in the second group include making suggestions and requests to get people to do something. Speech acts in the third group are more concerned with socializing, for instance, greeting, attracting attention and interrupting. Similarly, Hatch (1992) categorized speech acts into six major functions: a) giving/seeking factual information; b) expressing/querying intellectual attitudes; c) expressing/inquiring about emotional attitudes; d) expressing/questioning moral attitudes; e) suasion; and f) socializing. The first major function involves factual information exchange. The second deals with one's attitudes towards certain academic issues. The third concerns finding out or expressing one's feelings. The fourth is about showing one's standpoint in certain situations. The fifth involves making suggestions or giving warnings upon certain matters and the sixth is phatic serving to maintain social relationships.

It is worthwhile to remark that although the classifications include s*eeking/expressing information or attitudes*, Hatch (1992) divided speech acts of expressing into two sub-functions terming them *representative and expressive*. However, Klippel (1984) combined them under one category named *expressing and finding out intellectual and emotional attitudes*. Furthermore, *suggesting/suasion* is regarded as falling within the category of *getting things done* by Klippel (1984) but

Hatch (1992) defined them within the speech act, *directives*. It is just a matter of terminology, but the notion is the same. Additionally, *greeting, introducing, interrupting, hesitating*, etc. were vaguely explained by Klippel (1984) as *speech acts for particular situations;* whereas, Hatch (1992) termed them *greeting, introducing, congratulating* and *socializing.*

In short, linguists may use different labels for language functions, but most descriptions of similar acts resemble one another to a certain extent. Analysis of speech acts can provide researchers with an insight into the connection between the forms and functions of linguistic utterances. There is neither one utterance–one function limitation nor an all-purpose taxonomy available for pigeonholing linguistic data within a single system of categorization. Even the problem of taxonomic rigor can be tackled; the assignment of speech act function cannot be accurate unless the speaker's intent can be interpreted appropriately. In this respect, the classification of PAs will be contextualized in the specific context of the ACDs by taking the GSs' responses to one another in interaction. In order to make good sense of the GSs' utterances, a brief review on the ideational and interpersonal meanings of spoken discourse which follows next will be useful.

2.1.4 Ideational and Interpersonal Meanings from a Systemic-functional Linguistic Perspective

From the perspective of functional grammar, Halliday (1985) claimed that three functional components of meaning, ideational, interpersonal, and textual, which he called "metafuctions" in systemic theory, "are realized throughout the grammar of language" (p.158), within an English clause. Specifically, ideational meaning can first be interpreted as messages which represent the processes of doing, happening, feeling or being with associated participants and circumstances. Secondly, looking at the clause from the point of view of its interpersonal function, concurrently

with the formation of a message (ideational meaning), the clause is also organized as an interactive exchange involving speakers/writers and listeners/readers (interpersonal meaning). Thirdly, textual meaning, which expresses the organization of the message, deals with the relationships between the clause and the surrounding discourse, and with the context of situation in which it is occurring. Halliday (1985, cited in Chatupote, 1990, p.30) emphasized that "two general purposes which underline the use of language" are: a) to understand the context (the "ideational meaning" or the "goings on"); and b) "to act on others in it" (the "interpersonal meaning"). According to Halliday and Hasan (1989, cited in Kumpulainen & Mika, 1999), the functions of language used in the course of interaction cater both intra- and interpersonal purposes. On the one hand, the intentions transmitted via linguistic utterances serve an ideational, i.e. cognitive function. On the other hand, they serve an interpersonal function relating to the personal and social relationships between interlocutors. Butt et al. (2000) confirmed that:

> language seems to evolve for three major purposes These are: a) to talk about what is happening, what will happen, and what has happened *(ideational meaning)*; b) to interact and/or to express a point of view *(interpersonal meaning)*; and c) to turn the output of the previous two functions into a coherent whole *(textual meaning)*. (p.5)
>
> ***(Clarification in italics added)***

Functional analysis focuses on the speaker's verbal language used in a given context. It investigates and highlights the communicative strategies used by individuals whilst taking part in interaction (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). Analysis of this nature often concentrates on the illocutionary force of an utterance, i.e. on its functional meaning (Austin, 1962; Edwards & Westgate, 1994). The functions for which speakers use their oral language are closely linked with the topic of discussion as well as with the individuals' expectations and evolving interpretations of the situation shaped by the context of the activity.

Since the present study disregarded the accuracy of either the language or message produced by the GSs' and focused on interactive exchanges of information and messages among the GSs, the textual meaning was not taken into consideration. From this perspective, the analysis of the GSs' verbal utterances in the present study will be analyzed by referring to the notions of illocutionary acts to analyze how the GSs verbally performed certain acts or strategies in saying something. Meanwhile, notions of ideational and interpersonal meaning will be adopted to explore what was happening and how the GSs as interlocutors interacted with one another in the ACDs.

2.1.5 Non-verbal Behavior in Conversations

The literature review of speech act theory above indicates that the communicative meanings and functions of non-verbal acts have not been considered by many proponents interested in speech act theory. Since non-verbal behavior is often complementary to verbal means of conveying meaning and the scope of the current study covered both the linguistic utterances and the non-verbal behavior of the GSs, it is necessary to briefly review the communicative functions of non-verbal behavior in face-to-face conversations. In this section, the functions of non-verbal behavior or gestures in human communication and some of their existing classifications are presented.

2.1.5.1 Communicative Value of Non-verbal Behavior in Conversation

There are two views on the communicative value of non-verbal behavior in communication. One view acknowledges that non-verbal behavior plays a vital role in communication since "gestures naturally occurring with speech are an integral part of communicative efforts coming from conversation participants" (Battestini & Rolin-Lanziti, 2000, p. 17). However, this belief has been challenged by other researchers contending that gestures play a supplementary role in communication (Rime & Schiaratura, 1991, cited in Battestini & Rolin-Lanziti, 2000). Generally speaking, the common theme of these two views strongly indicates that non-verbal behaviors do play a communicative part in interaction and it is simply a matter of degree as to how far they are significant in delivering meaning.

It was earlier noticed by Halliday (1985) that gestures also have 'interpersonal' functions which explicitly indicate type of speech acts and carry illocutionary force since they represent speakers' attitudes and specify the response expected from the interlocutors. According to Barker and Gaut (1996), "non-verbal cues send messages that are more compelling and eloquent than any verbal statement" (p.73) can do. To be specific, non-verbal behavior can also be used to take the place of a word or phrase in transmitting a message, to complement what a speaker is saying, to augment the verbal expression of feelings, to control or regulate the flow of a conversation, and to relieve tension in the atmosphere of the conversation (Verderber, 1993). Similarly, it is believed that non-verbal behavior can get messages across by being substituted for verbal utterances or by elaborating verbal messages, by repeating, complementing, regulating or accenting (Ruben & Stewart, 2006; Barker & Gaut, 1996; Berko, Wolvin, D. & Wolvin, R.; 1995; DeVito, 1994). This point is further supported by Alston (2000, cited by Wee 2004) who noted that there are clearly non-verbal acts which can be said to perform the same kinds of

communicative function as linguistic ones. It was also recognized that non-verbal behaviors or gestures are systematically and semantically co-expressive with speech, such that they often convey meaning also present in speech (Gullberg, 2006; Battestini & Rolin-Lanziti, 2000). Thus, studies based on speech act theory should be expanded to account for both verbally and non-verbally manifested communicative acts.

So far, few studies have systematically examined the use of gestures in conjunction with spoken language data, especially in academic contexts. Consequently, little understanding has been gained about what gestures "afford their users as a means of communication'' (Kendon, 1993, cited in Brookes, 2005, p. 2045), under what circumstances the gestures might be used, how they cooperatively function with spoken language in conveying meaning, and how they become detachable from speech in carrying out messages in conversations.

In recent years, alongside a number of investigations on the importance of verbal interaction in human communication, researchers have statistically demonstrated that "as much as 65 percent of social meaning in face-to-face communication may be carried in non-verbal messages" (Verderber, 1993, p.89). Among them, McNeill (1992) stressed that gestures are also conversation. They are important to the construction of knowledge with communication. Some research has been conducted focusing on how verbal utterances and gestures harmonize or alternatively disharmonize, in a discussion, emphasizing the importance of analyzing speech and gestures together (McNeill, 1992, cited in Klerfelt, 2007). In line with this perspective, it is contended that "space, gesture, and speech are all combined in a construction of complex multilayered representations in which no single layer is complete or coherent by itself" (Hutchins & Palin, 1997, cited in Klerfelt, 2007, p. 337). Gestures are good candidates for strategies. Previous work has shown that gestures are exploited strategically in L2 production in several ways to metacommunicatively manage problematic interaction by flagging ongoing word

search, floor keeping, and so forth (Gullberg, 1998).

In face-to-face conversations, people often produce spontaneous gestures such as head or hand movements, facial expressions, and eye contact. These bodily movements play an important role in communication as they substitute or facilitate speech to express meaning. Different from verbal utterances, gestures are soundless and physical and they can form a visual representation of things (Kendon, 1985). For that reason, one can view verbal utterances and gestures as two different media in the ongoing interaction. However, Klerfelt (2007) noted that "when considering the significance of conversation, verbal utterances are often viewed as transmitters of communication, while gestures are often omitted" (p.337). Controversially, some researchers have perceived gestures as a bodily behavior which do not transmit semantic information beyond that of the linguistic utterances that accompany them (Butterworth & Hadar, 1989; Hadar & Butterworth, 1997), while others have emphasized that gestures can have crucial significance in understanding what is being said (Koschmann & LeBaron, 2002). McNeill (1992) argued that ''gestures are an integral part of language as much as are words, phrases, and sentences'' (p.2). Chui (2005) believed that "the linguistic data alone do not always provide a complete view of the message that the speaker intends to convey" (p.872). In line with this viewpoint, several researchers were cited by Brookes (2005) as follows:

> Previous research on gestures in relation to spoken language shows that gestures function in a variety of ways in conjunction with speech. Gestures can visually represent aspects of what is said. They may depict concrete objects, actions, and events, or their forms may be metaphorical in representing abstract concepts (McNeill, 1992). Gestures also give greater specificity to spoken meaning (Bavelas, 1992; Kendon, 1997; McNeill, 1987, 1992; Muller, 1994)

and provide additional meaning to that expressed in speech (Bavelas et al., 1992; De Fornel, 1992; Kendon, 1997; McNeill, 1992). (p.2045)

Having considered the significance of non-verbal behavior in conversation, some functions of non-verbal messages which have been classified in the literature will then be discussed.

2.1.5.2 Functions of Non-verbal Behavior

Based on a review of the existing classifications of Ruben & Stewart (2006), Battestini and Rolin-Lanziti (2000), Berko, Wolvin, D. & Wolvin, R. (1995), DeVito, (1994), four types of non-verbal body movements are categorized and summarized in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Function and Example of Four Types of Body Movements

Name	Function	Example
Emblems	Directly translate words	"Okay" sign means all right, "hand-up" to bid for a turn in talking situation
Illustrators	Accompany and literally "illustrate" verbal messages	Circular hand movements when talking a circle; hands far apart when talking something large
Affect Displays	Communicate emotional meaning	Expressions of happiness, surprise, interests, puzzlements
Regulators	Monitor, maintain and control the speaking of another	Facial expressions and hand gestures indicating "keep going", "slow down", "what else?"

(Adapted from: Ruben & Stewart, 2006; Berko, Wolvin, D. & Wolvin, R., 1995; DeVito, 1994)

Additionally, Battestini and Rolin-Lanziti's (2000) review of communicative functions concerning non-verbal features suggested that the classification of gestures rests upon the assumption that non-verbal behavior transmits meaning in a way which can be systemically described. They pointed out that

emblems signify independently of speech and can convey meaning as precisely as words and "usually carry speaker's specific communicative intentions" (p.17). On the other hand, illustrators, which accompany speech, normally demonstrate certain aspects of the verbal message (Ekman & Friesen, 1981, cited in Battestini & Rolin-Lanziti, 2000). In their review, several examples were cited to show the communicative functions of gestures. They adopted the term "interactive gestures" from Bavelas, Chovil, Coates and Roe (1995, cited in Battestini & Rolin-Lanziti, 2000) to designate types of gestures which function fundamentally to regulate the conversation flow. Instances of this category are summed up in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Name and Function of Interactive Gestures

Name	Function
Turn gestures	To hand over or to accept a turn in conversation
Seeking gestures	To elicit a certain response from the recipient, such as appealing for assistance or seeking agreement
Citing gestures	To correspond to verbal expressions

(Adapted from: Rolin-Lanziti, 2000)

No inclusive classification has been established in the literature so far. This is due to the fact that gestures should be interpreted by closely referring to the specific context where they actually occur. This point is supported by Battestini and Rolin-Lanziti (2000), who recognized that few gestures can be translated into semantic units as precisely as linguistic items.

Building upon the existing notions and classifications of non-verbal behavior in communication, the categories of non-verbal PAs were modified and tagged by the present researcher with a close reference to the context of the ACDs in the current study.

2.1.6 Research on Learners' Participation in Group or Whole-class Discussions

Studies on learner's classroom participation have been mainly concerned with individual differences between students in terms of gender, language proficiency, culture, or ethnicity. Classroom interactions are observed and analyzed to find patterns of behavior dealing with, or making these differences clear. They share an interest not just in differences students bring into the classroom, but in particular in how differences are produced in classroom interaction. Therefore, since the focus of the present study is on the GSs' participation behavior in the ACDs, which were interactional in nature, the research concerning classroom interaction was considered relevant and therefore reviewed.

Candela (1995) conducted a study based on the discourse analysis of data derived from video-taped classroom interactions among groups of Mexico elementary teachers and students to demonstrate that the discursive power can be exercised by the students when they interact with teachers or peers in expressing and defending themselves in classroom discussions. This study shows that students' participation in classroom discourse is active and complex and does not always follow the traditional I(initiation)-R(response)-E(evaluation) structure, which was defined as the ubiquitous three-part sequence in classroom interactions constituting around 60 percent of total classroom talk (Wells,1993). It was found that teachers frequently revoice students' comments and students can function on a shared footing in the interaction equal to the teacher and even have the last word. Her findings countered earlier studies which assume that the traditional I(initiation)-R(response)-E(evaluation) structure privileges teachers to control classroom discourse with respects to raising questions, orienting responses, and evaluating answers (Leith & Myerson, 1989; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, cited in Candela, 1995). Candela' study therefore opens the possibility of understanding the multiple and simultaneous processes happening in the classroom.

Klerk (1995) carried out a study aimed at determining the nature of typical floor-holding and floor-winning patterns in small-group postgraduate seminars based on video recordings from the Arts Faculty at a South African university. He reported that in postgraduate seminars, students were competitive in floor taking and there were significant imbalances in participation by different groups in this competitive speaking environment. The author further argued that these imbalances reflected culture/gender-specific attributions about what constitutes appropriate participation and also, to some degree, previously learned discourse patterns associated with schooling experience. This study revealed that students vary in their levels of participation in proportion to their familiarity with the discourse conventions operating in this context. The author noted that in academic discussions such as seminars, students meet to communicate and learn, and "the opportunity to speak is highly desirable and of crucial importance to both tutor and student" (p.172), which may help to explain the competition among students to get hold of turns in seminars.

Taking a dynamic and process oriented perspective, Kumpulainen and Mika (1999) introduced a descriptive system of analysis of peer group interaction. Three analytic dimensions were proposed in their paper. The first dimension, termed as *the functional analysis*, is used to investigate the character and purpose of student utterances in peer group interaction by characterizing the communicative strategies used by participants in social activity. The second dimension, *cognitive processing*, serves to examine the ways in which students approach and process learning tasks in their social activity by highlighting students' working strategies and situated positions towards learning, knowledge and themselves as problem solvers. The third dimension of the analysis, *social processing*, which focuses on the nature of social relationships that are developed in students' social activity, can be used to explore the types and forms of student participation in peer groups.

Cutting (2001) carried out a longitudinal study to describe the interpersonal semantics in casual conversations of six students from MSc courses in Applied Linguistics by focusing on the speech acts in the students' language. Triangulation showed that the overall function of common room conversations is interactional. By exploring the social rules and norms of the in-group and how certain speech acts require other speech acts to follow, she noted that some speech acts may be used to show solidarity and claim in-group membership. Having noticed that the speaker's choice of speech act depends on the speech acts in the immediately preceding discourse about certain topics, she suggested a model of speech act categories that takes into account who or what is referred to (self, interlocutor or third party).

Basturkmen (2002) examined interaction in a range of speaking events in the setting of a Masters of Business Administration program in a UK university. The study explored patterns of sequential organization in seminar-type discussions. It revealed two main patterns of organization: simple exchanges of pre-formed ideas and more complex exchanges that enabled ideas to emerge and be negotiated in interaction. This pattern shows interlocutors jointly organizing and constructing text. It is suggested that patterns of organization whereby students negotiate meaning and co-construct discourse and the type of interlocutor behavior underlying this can be used to complement conventional language description of discussions in English for academic purposes.

He and Dai (2006) investigated Chinese undergraduates' performance in the CET-SET (College English Test-Spoken English Test, a national oral proficiency test for non-English majors in Mainland China) group discussion task by adopting a set of Interactional Language Functions (ILFs). The group discussion of the test is designed to be a communicative exchange for three or four candidates at one time using real-life topics with examiners present. The eight ILFs were identified with the spoken test corpus. They are: 1) (dis)agreeing; 2) asking for opinions or

information; 3) challenging; 4) supporting; 5) modifying; 6) persuading; 7) developing; and 8) negotiating meaning. The statistic results showed that (dis)agreeing was used most frequently followed by asking opinions or information with all the rest accounted collectively for a low percentage. Although candidates were informed or might have been trained to ask questions, clarify discussion points and negotiate with one another in order to reach an agreement on a given topic, the instances of ILFs through out the data didn't show the desired interactional and communicative nature of the discussion. The researchers' interpretation of the less communicative interaction of the candidates was that this was due to their heavy emphasis on their individual performance because they were conscious of their accuracy and fluency in the test situation, which may have interfered with their sense of cooperating with one another for the effective development of a given topic.

Cognizant that many studies on second language classroom activities only discuss participation in the aggregate in terms of total turns at talk or total words per turn, Jenks (2007) conducted a study investigating the interactional role that participatory structures of tasks have on floor management. In this study, *participatory structures* deal with how information is distributed between interlocutors and the type of participation required. Floor management can be described by referring to concepts such as one-way and two-way interaction as interlocutors' attempt to move the task forward. The findings show that the way information is distributed between interlocutors affects floor management. To contextualize his findings, he cited an example noting that in a one-way participatory structure, one interlocutor usually describes a picture to another interlocutor who cannot see the picture; whereas a two-way participatory structure is thought as one which can encourage a certain type of interaction like appeal for assistance. He further pointed out that the type of interaction most commonly associated with the study of participatory structures is interactional modifications (e.g., Nakahama et al., 2001; Slimani-Rolls, 2005; Foster & Ohta, 2005, cited in Jenks, 2007).

Kumpulainen and Mika (2007) conducted a study to examine the social construction of participation in whole-class interaction of 17 third-grade students and their teacher in an elementary classroom community. Micro- and multilevel analyses were undertaken on the transcribed video-recordings of whole-classroom interaction collected from three subject courses. The study explored forms and patterns of interaction by which particular participation modes appeared and maintained over a lesson. In order to determine the students' participatory modes, ten communicative functions were identified as follows: 1) Evidence negotiation--includes asking for and presenting evidence, justification or reasons; 2) Defining--includes seeking or providing definitions, elaboration, clarification or demonstration; 3) Experiential--focuses on seeking and sharing personal feelings or life experiences; 4) View sharing--consists of asking for and expressing opinions; 5) Information exchange--comprises seeking and giving information or observations; 6) Orchestration of classroom interaction--deals with the management of interactional speaking turns; 7) Non-verbal communication--consists of expressions that signal willingness to participate in classroom interactions; 8) Neutral interaction--indicates involvement by echoing and re-voicing the ongoing interactions; 9) Confirming--demonstrates the acknowledgement and acceptance of the topic of interaction; and 10) Evaluation--offers appraisal on others' contributions.

The analyses of this study revealed four diverse modes of participation in the classroom community based on the degree of the participants' interaction in discussions. The four types of modes are: 1) the Vocal participants took authority in the classroom learning community by initiating and responding to evidence negotiations as well as providing feedback to the presented arguments through multilateral discussions; 2) the Responsive participants engaged in whole-classroom interaction mostly by responding to the others' initiated topics submissively; 3) the Bilateral participants contributed to the classroom interaction by responding to the teacher or one student only; and 4) the Silent participants were students who

participated in the discussions merely upon the teacher's requests. In closing the paper, the author suggested that a deeper understanding of the ways in which different participation modes would be likely to facilitate critical examination and possible refinement of existing interactional and pedagogical practices.

2.1.7 Research on Gestures in Classroom Conversations

This section provides a review of several studies concerning the communicative value of non-verbal gestures or behavior in natural interactions.

Battestini and Rolin-Lanziti (2000) prefaced their review of research on non-verbal features of speech with the results of a questionnaire suggesting that language teachers believe that non-verbal features of speech promote foreign language comprehension and play an important communicative role in language classroom activities. Based on a thorough review of the relevant literature, they drew attention to several issues dealing with non-verbal features of speech: a) the significance of the context in meaning decoding and function defining of certain gestures; b) potential discrepancies of using gestures in different languages; c) the likely interpretations of their meanings and functions in different cultures; and d) the optimal approaches to integrate non-verbal features of speech into teaching of L2 comprehension.

Acknowledging that speech act theory can and should be extended to non-verbal communication is obviously a controversial matter. Wee (2004) treated communicative act as a term broader than speech act by pointing out that there is an unduly restrictive application of speech act theory to linguistic communication (Searle, 1965, cited in Wee, 2004). Wee's term, communicative acts, encompasses both linguistic and non-linguistic communication. Having noted that linguistic devices for modifying illocutionary force often attracted much more interests than non-linguistic ones, Wee (2004) looked at a set of non-linguistic communicative acts, referred to as

extreme communicative acts (ECAs). Examples of ECAs which he cited are hunger strikes, self-immolation, and the chopping off of one's fingers. In his paper, these acts are described as "all nonlinguistic devices by which illocutionary force is boosted, never attenuated" (p.2161) and contribute to a more socially oriented theory of speech acts. The analysis of ECAs suggested that nonlinguistic acts serve the communicative purpose of indicating and reinforcing actors' linguistic acts and should be best interpreted as modifiers as well as indicators of illocutionary force, making it desirable to account for nonlinguistic acts within the realm of speech act theory.

Using video-recordings of spontaneous conversations, Brookes (2005) conducted a study to analyze how three types of quotable gestures named 'drinking (alcohol/beer),' 'money,' and 'streetwiseness' used by Black urban South Africans can fulfill different communicative functions. She established characteristics of their use in relation to speech saying that "quotable gestures are multifunctional, fulfilling substantive, interactive, and structural-discoursal functions simultaneously" (p. 2074). Her findings coincide with the results of Kendon (1997, cited in Brookes, 2005) in that:

> These gestures represent what is spoken, modify content, or add information not present in the spoken mode. In terms of their interpersonal and interactive functions, they contribute to expressing the illocutionary force of utterances and directing the course of the interaction. (p.2075)

Gullberg's (2006) paper considered a communicative account of over-explicit L2 discourse by focusing on the interdependence between spoken and gestural cohesion. She recognized that gestures, which are defined as the (mainly manual) movements speakers resort to unintentionally while they speak (cf. Kendon, 1986, 2004; McNeill, 1992, cited in Gullberg, 2006), are intimately related to language and speech. She further pointed out that "gestures are semantically coexpressive with speech" (p.158). It therefore seems plausible that learners use gestures as an interactional communication strategy to overcome problems with over-explicit and, consequently, non-cohesive speech.

Given that a relatively comprehensive view has been elaborated about the theoretical framework of PAs, attention will now be directed to the notion of CSs because CSs may be called upon by the GSs when communication difficulties occur or effectiveness of meaning transmission is needed. In the following sections, the notions of CSs are reviewed in detail.

2. 2 Communication Strategies (CSs)

Maleki (2007) noted that CSs studies conducted in its infancy aimed exclusively at identifying, defining, and classifying communication strategies. According to Gullberg (2006), traditional research on communication strategies has overwhelmingly addressed the issue of identifying strategic behavior and different criteria have been proposed under different frameworks (for overviews, see Georgieva, 1999; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Kasper & Kellerman, 1997; Yule & Tarone, 1997). Interactional frameworks with sociolinguistic perspectives have typically identified strategies by their surface forms in the output (e.g., Tarone, 1980; Al-Humaidi 2002). Psycholinguistic and cognitive approaches, attempting to deal with underlying speaker-internal processes, have relied on clusters of behavioral cues (e.g., Bialystok, 1990; Færch & Kasper, 1983a, 1983b; Kellerman & Bialystok, 1997). Since the

working definition of CSs in the current study was extended to bridge linguistic gaps and meet communication needs by individual or joint efforts, it is essential to conduct a thorough review of the evolution of the definition and classification of CSs as well as from other different perspectives.

2.2.1 Defining Criteria and Definitions of CSs

Since Selinker (1972) first introduced the notion of "communication strategy" to the literature, the notion of CSs has been conceptualized and refined with different criteria over the course of the last three decades.

According to the most thorough review conducted by Dörnyei and Scott (1997) on the second language (L2) CSs research, two defining criteria of CSs frequently referred to are: problem-orientedness and consciousness, which were coined and first discussed at length by Færch and Kasper (1983a).

Although there is a widespread disagreement in the research literature about the exact nature of CSs, ***problem-orientedness*** has been identified as a "primarily defining criterion for CSs" (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997, p.182). Similarly, Bialystok (1990) termed problem-orientedness as 'problematicity', referring to "the idea that strategies are used only when a speaker perceives that there is a problem which may interrupt communication" (p.3). Adopting problem-orientedness as a key criterion, Færch and Kasper's (1983b, cited in Kasper & Kellerman, 1997) definition of CSs is "mental plans implemented by the second language learner in response to an internal signal of an imminent problem, a form of self-help that did not have to engage the listener's support for resolution" (p.2). Poulisse et al (1984, cited in Kasper & Kellerman, 1997) defined their CSs as "strategies by which a language user employs in order to achieve his intended meaning on becoming aware of problems arising in the planning phase of an utterance due to his own linguistic shortcomings" (p.2). Dörnyei and Scott (1997) categorized the source of problems in three groups as

follows: a) the speaker's own problems of linguistic resource deficits; b) the speaker's performance problems; and c) the speaker's awareness of his/her interlocutors' problems. Adopting the criterion of problem-orientedness, Georgieva (1999) defined CSs as "mental activities used by L2 learners for solving what they perceive as problems in reaching particular goals" (p.405).

Since a "strategy" in general sense might be a conscious technique to accomplish a communicative goal, ***consciousness*** is viewed as the second major criterion in defining CSs (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). In Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) words, in a communication course, "one can be conscious of a language problem, of the intent/attempt to solve this problem, of the repertoire of potentially applicable CSs…the alternative plan, and of the execution of the CS…" (p.184). Bialystock (1990) also termed CSs as "the learner's control over a repertoire of strategies so that particular ones may be selected from the range of options and deliberatively applied to achieve certain effects" (p.5). Færch and Kasper (1983a), contending that consciousness is perhaps more a matter of degree, defined CSs as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (p.36). Incorporating criteria of both problem-orientedness and consciousness, Lafford (2004) defined CSs as follows:

> Strategies used by L2 learners in a conscious attempt to bridge a perceived communication gap, either caused by the learner's lack of L2 knowledge (resource deficit), problems with his or her own performance or problems resulting from interaction with an interlocutor. (p.204)

It is noteworthy that the two defining criteria reviewed above are neither mutually exclusive nor do they disagree but complement each other. The consciousness criterion, in fact, incorporates the notion of problem-orientedness in that in the event of communicative problems or difficulties, some speakers may consciously or unconsciously employ certain strategies to overcome them. It might be the occurrence of the communicative problems that premises the possibility of consciousness in communication.

However, an ***extended criterion*** has been proposed arguing that "problem-orientedness" and "consciousness" should not be regarded as established defining criteria of CSs (Wagner 1983; Dechert, 1983; Bialystok, 1990; Georgieva, 1999). It is suggested that the defining criterion of CSs should also cover attempts to keep communication channel open in speaking events. The reason behind is that CSs, which comprise verbal and non-verbal strategies, are usually utilized by language learners to sustain the continuity of a conversation in the face of communication difficulties and to enhance the effectiveness of communication for a smooth conversation flow (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983, cited in Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). This notion goes beyond the restriction of CSs as problem-solving or conscious devices to include CSs used in meaning achieving situations. According to Bialystok (1990), CSs may be used equally well in situations where no problems have arisen because language use is always strategic in nature. Chatupote (1990), agreeing with this extended view, proposed that nearly all learners' utterances are produced with the help of CSs and defined CSs in her dissertation as:

> the means through which to attempt to keep communication going despite the insufficient availability of target language resources, either temporary or as a result of the learner's developmental stage and/or of the topic and/or knowledge about the other interlocutor. (p.11)

Littlemore (2003) confirmed that CSs are "the steps taken by language learners in order to enhance the effectiveness of their communication" (p.331) and thereby introduced three aspects of measuring communicative effectiveness: a) ease of comprehension; b) stylishness of the language produced; and c) the perceived proficiency of the student.

In this study, a gap or an interruption in the normal flow of speech in the ACDs was conceptualized as a breakdown in communication or an information need in which CSs might occur in situations where the GSs could not perform their initiated PAs successfully. In this sense, the working definition of CSs in this study followed the extended criterion of defining CSs by integrating "problem-orientedness", "consciousness" and attempts to keep the communication channel open. In other words, the working definition of CSs in this study took problem-orientedness and consciousness as a starting point but extended it to cover all strategies used to tackle communication problems as well as to enhance communication effectiveness before communication breakdowns occur (See the CSs definition of this study in Chapter 1, Section 1.6).

2.2.2 Perspectives on Taxonomizing CSs

The *traditional perspective* conceives CSs as devices used by speakers to overcome communication problems (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). From this perspective, the common practice in taxonomizing CSs is to categorize them into two main groups: reduction/avoidance strategies and achievement/compensatory strategies. This view is based on a widely recognized notion that when a speaker encounters communication problems, s/he may choose: a) to avoid speaking by totally or partially giving up his/her communicative goal; or b) to achieve by manipulating his/her existing knowledge or appealing for assistance (Færch & Kasper, 1983a). This view is supported by Chatupote (1990), who said that in handling messages when

communication breakdowns occur, a speaker may either avoid or try to achieve the intended message. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) further proposed that CSs are used either to "a) tailor one's message to one's resources by altering, reducing, or completely abandoning the original content; or to b) try or convey the intended message in spite of the linguistic deficiencies by extending or manipulating the available language system" (p.195).

Adopting this traditional perspective, Færch and Kasper (1983b), and Willems (1987) grouped CSs into two general categories: a) reduction strategies, including formal reduction concerning linguistic knowledge such as phonology, morphology, syntax and functional strategies (concerning content knowledge) such as topic avoidance, message abandonment, meaning replacement; and b) achievement strategies such as code switching (L1 or L2 transfer), interlanguage based strategies (paraphrasing), cooperative strategies such as appeal for /giving assistance, or some non-linguistic strategies like mime or gestures which carry or enhance meaning. The subtypes of achievement strategies in Færch and Kasper's (1983b) taxonomy are further divided into five sub-types: 1) L1-based strategies (e.g. code-switching, transferring); 2) IL-based strategies (e.g. generalization, paraphrase, word coinage and restructuring); 3) cooperative strategies, 4) nonlinguistic strategies; and 5) retrieval strategies (see Table 2.3 for details).

Later on, *two perspectives* with different focuses on taxonomizing CSs were discussed by Kasper and Kellerman (1997), Yule and Tarone (1997), Dörnyei and Scott (1997), and Al-Humaidi (2002). One is a ***psycholinguistic perspective,*** which focuses on the range of problem-solving devices used by an individual speaker to tackle communication breakdowns due to linguistic deficiency or knowledge shortage. The other is a ***sociolinguistic perspective***, which emphasizes the joint efforts by interlocutors to achieve mutual understanding (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997).

Table 2.3: Summary of Taxonomies of CSs of Færch & Kasper (1983a) and Willems (1987)

Færch & Kasper (1983a, 1983b)			**Willems (1987)**		
Reduction strategies		**Achievement strategies**	**Reduction strategies**		**Achievement strategies**
Formal reduction	**Functional reduction**	**Compensatory strategies**	**Formal reduction**	**Functional reduction**	**Paralinguistic strategies**
Phonological	Actional reduction	-Code switching	Phonological	-Topic avoidance	**Interlingual strategies**
Morphological	Modal reduction	-Interlanguage switching	Morphological	-Message abandonment	-Borrowing/ Code switching
Syntactic	Reduction of propositional content	-Inter-/intralingual transfer	Syntactic	-Meaning replacement	-Literal translation
Lexical	-Topic avoidance	-IL based strategies	Lexical		-Foreignizing
	-Message abandonment	--Generalization			**Intralanguage strategies**
	-Meaning replacement	--Paraphrase			-approximation
		--Word coinage			-Word coinage
		--Reconstructing			-Paraphrase
		-Cooperative strategies			--Description
		-Non-linguistic strategies			--Circumlocution
		Retrieval strategies			--Exemplification
					-Self-repair
					-Appeal for assistance
					--Explicit
					--Implicit
					--Checking questions
					-Initiating repair

Later on, *two perspectives* with different focuses on taxonomizing CSs were discussed by Kasper and Kellerman (1997), Yule and Tarone (1997), Dörnyei and Scott (1997), and Al-Humaidi (2002). One is a ***psycholinguistic perspective,*** which focuses on the range of problem-solving devices used by an individual speaker to tackle communication breakdowns due to linguistic deficiency or knowledge shortage. The other is a ***sociolinguistic perspective***, which emphasizes the joint efforts of meaning negotiation made by interlocutors to achieve mutual understanding

(Kasper & Kellerman, 1997).

From a ***psycholinguistic perspective*****,** CSs are viewed as being part of the planning process, i.e. mental procedures (Flyman, 1997). The corresponding CSs taxonomies constructed based on this perspective focus on strategies used consciously or unconsciously to tackle communication problems by a speaker as a cognitively independent individual. In Al-Humaidi's (2002) words:

> The psycholinguistic approach describes cognitive processing with implicit inferences about the internal similarity of linguistically different forms observed in the L2 output. It focuses on internal and cognitive processes of individual learners and it characterizes underlying competence to account for performance data. (p.15)

Taxonomies based on the psycholinguistic perspective are referred to as process-oriented taxonomies because they focus more on the underlying cognitive processes rather than the surface linguistic features. Taxonomies adopting the psycholinguistic perspective are also characterized by its parsimonious reduction of strategies (Al-Humaidi, 2002). Bialystock's (1990) taxonomy includes only two labels of CSs: analysis-based strategies and control-based strategies. Representatives of the psycholinguistic school are Bialystock (1990) and the Nijmegen Group (see Poulisse, 1990 for details). According to Smith (2003), Nijmegen Group's taxonomy covers two groups: conceptual and code strategies. Conceptual strategies are either holistic or analytic strategies. With analytic strategies, the learner analogizes or elaborates specific properties of the target referent. For instance . . . tools used for eating food which Chinese like to use (target word—chopsticks). In contrast, with holistic strategies, the learner substitutes a target object with referent shares certain properties, or which symbolizes part of the same hierarchical property of the target object. For instance . . . it's a bird (swallow). Code strategies subsume two subtypes,

morphological creativity and transfer. Morphological creativity occurs when learners create new words a strategy of transfer exploits similarities between languages. In addition to simply transferring words or phrases from one language to the other, this may include using an L3 to overcome the limitations. Both taxonomies put more emphasis on cognitive processes and individual attempts in solving communication problems. They predominantly focus on individual learners' attempts to bridge their linguistic gaps at linguistic levels. In Al-Humaidi's (2002) words:

> the types of strategies they include reflect more the individual production, that is, the strategies that are used mainly by the individual to convey meaning to the listener and that are not interactive or used by both interlocutors at the same time to achieve comprehension and construct discourse. (p.22-23)

Comparatively, a ***sociolinguistic view*** pays more attention to external and interactive strategies and observed forms of performance in L2 output. Al-Humaidi (2002) suggested that the sociolinguistic perspective on CSs is superior to the psycholinguistic perspective in terms of the integration of different theoretical orientations such as collaborative theory, conversation analysis and critical sociolinguistics (see examples in Wilkes-Gibbs, 1997; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Rampton, 1997). A ***sociolinguistic view*** looks at CSs "as elements in the ongoing and contingent meaning-creating process of communication" (Wagner & Firth, 1997, p. 324). With a sociolinguistic perspective, Tarone (1981) defined her CSs as: "…mutual attempts of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (p. 287-288). According to Færch and Kasper (1983b), Tarone's definition considers CSs to be cooperative in nature noting that: "the learner and his interlocutor are aware of there being a communication problem which they then attempt to solve on a cooperative basis" (p.

212). This definition is broader than Færch and Kasper's (1983a) above in its consideration of the potential interlocutor's cooperative efforts for the sake of meaning clarification. Wilkes-Gibbs (1997) and Al-Humaidi (2002) confirmed that a sociolinguistic perspective emphasizes interactive procedures and collaborative strategies used by interlocutors to establish common ground based on their perceived individual communicative goals as well as the needs of the interactive context.

With a sociolinguistic perspective, CSs researchers (Williams, Inscoe, & Tasker, 1997; Bejarano et al., 1997; Al-Humaidi, 2002) pay more attention to joint efforts made by interlocutors to solve communication problems and meaning negotiation mechanism by incorporating strategies such as asking/giving confirmation/clarification, appealing for/giving assistance, using gambits or gestures and any possible strategies to keep the communication channel open into their taxonomies. Taxonomies following this perspective can be expanded liberally according to the degree of their interactive research context. The three taxonomies are summarized in Table 2.4.

It is worthy of special notice that studies on CSs which adopted the psycholinguistic perspective have mostly used elicitation tasks and ignored the listener's influence on the CSs use. Yule and Tarone (1997) suggested that the presence of an addressee creates an interactive context and calls for 'interactive strategies' (e.g., appeal for assistance and mime) and thus it is important to investigate CSs not only as individual attempts but also as interactional strategies.

However, what is neglected by most CSs researchers is that there exist some similarities between psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives. It should be noted that both perspectives acknowledge and maintain problem-orientedness and consciousness as fundamental criteria. The psycholinguistic perspective pays more attention to the individual's awareness of cognitive problems and the self-helped attempts to tackle them, whereas, the sociolinguistic perspectives emphasizes interlocutors' awareness of observed problems and their joint efforts to overcome

them. Furthermore, Færch and Kasper (1983a) proposed that consciousness is just a matter of degree by modifying it with the adjective "potential".

Table 2.4: Summary of Taxonomies of CSs of Williams, Inscoe, & Tasker (1997), Bejarano et al. (1997) and Al-Humaidi (2002)

Williams, Inscoe, & Tasker (1997)	Bejarano *et al* (1997)	Al-Humaidi (2002)	
Interactional strategies	**Interactional modification strategies**	**Individual based strategies**	**Interactional based strategies**
Confirmation checks	**Modified-interaction**	-Message alteration	-Confirmation checks
-by orientation	**strategies**	-Approximation	--Code-based
--positive	**-**Checking for	--Semantic	confirmation checks
--neutral	comprehension and	approximation	--Positive confirmation
-by function	clarification	--Syntactic	checks
--process	-Appeal for assistance	approximation	-Clarification requests
--past action	-Giving Assistance	-Code switching	-Comprehension checks
--code	-Repairing	-Self-reformulation	-Other reformulations
--knowledge	**Social-interaction**	-Self-repetition'	-Other repetition
--management	**strategies**		
Clarification requests	-Elaborating		
-limiting	-Facilitating flow of		
-open	conversation		
- checks	-Responding		
--of utterances	-Seeking information		
--of task	or an opinion		
--of knowledge	-Paraphrasing		
Self-reformulations			
Self-repetitions			
Other-reformulations			
Other- repetitions			

In the present researcher's view, if a CS study is guided by the psycholinguistic perspective, the informants' underlying problems in communication should be interpreted on the basis of a thorough understanding of the informants and the specific events; if the CS research is directed by the sociolinguistic perspective, the identification of informants' observed verbal and non-verbal strategies should

match the functions of the language they use.

So far, there is no universally acknowledged taxonomy of CSs since the researchers' perspectives may differ in their focus and thus their CS taxonomies may vary due to the background of the subjects or the nature of the tasks. As a result, competing taxonomies have been constructed with CS researchers' different defining criteria and perspectives. The CSs taxonomy used in this study will take the traditional perspective into account and adopt both the psycholinguistic perspective to investigate the individual graduate student's attempts to solve communicative problems and the sociolinguistic perspective to explore the interactional strategies used by the GSs as interlocutors to negotiate meanings.

2.2.3 Related Studies on Communication Strategies in Naturally Occurring Interactional Activities

Research on CSs in its infancy in the literature shares similarities in terms of identifying, defining and classifying (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997). Later on, empirical studies on CSs have taken on characteristics and differences based on the data source and research settings as well as the researchers' scopes, perspectives, interests, methodological approaches to data treatment and interpretation.

According to Williams, Inscoe and Tasker (1997), much of the research about CSs has focused narrowly and predominantly on learners' gaps in lexis, and most studies have been conducted almost exclusively by using elicitation tasks, which mainly represent non-interactional data, such as story telling/retelling, description, instruction, concept identification, and translation (e.g. Poulisse, 1990; Flyman, 1997; Littlemore, 2003; Lafford, 2004). These studies have investigated various factors affecting the use of CSs such as language proficiency, L1, and type of tasks. The researchers in these studies have focused overwhelmingly on individual production rather than the negotiation of meaning and the achievement of

comprehension. Other researchers recommend exploring CSs in a broader sense by including strategies to enhance the effectiveness of communication by interlocutors' joint efforts (Wanger, 1983; Bejarano, Levine, Olshtain, & Steiner, 1997; Al-Humaidi, 2002).

Since the linkage between CSs research and pedagogical issues has been raised, many studies have been carried out to investigate the teachability of CSs and there has been some controversy between the "the Pros" and "the Cons" (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997). The Pros or the supporters believe that CSs are teachable and should be expanded liberally. Researchers advocating the Cons' position focus more on the similarities between L1 and L2 learning and the cognitive process underlying L2 learning. Holding the belief that CSs conceived in interactional terms can only be acquired rather than taught, those researchers are not in favor of linking communication strategies and pedagogical issues (Yule & Tarone, 1997). Researchers from among the Pros advocate that L2 learners may benefit from specific teaching on how to use various verbal and non-verbal means of coping with communication difficulties and breakdowns (Færch & Kasper, 1983a; Rost & Ross,1991; Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991, 1994; Gabrielatos, 1992) The teachability and practicality of CSs instruction has been supported by Dörnyei (1995), Bejarano, Levine, Olshtain, and Steiner (1997), Lam (2006) and Maleki (2007) with their empirical findings that instruction on CSs is conducive to the development of learners' strategic competence.

Of the many empirical studies on CSs, there has been comparatively little research conducted in naturally occurring classroom iteractional activities, particularly, in academic settings. Since the exploration of CSs in the present study was carried out in an interactional academic context with an extended defining criterion and integrated perspective, much previous research bears little relevance to it. However, studies which take into account the situated nature of real communication by examining the functions of CSs in bridging communication breakdowns and/or enhancing the effectiveness were reviewed for their potential relevance to the current

study.

Williams, Inscoe and Tasker (1997) conducted a descriptive study of the CS use by videotaping one-to-one natural interaction between mandarin-speaking international teaching assistants (NNS) and English speaking undergraduates (NS) in three organic chemistry laboratory sessions. The aim of the study was to find out how the NNS-NS achieved mutual achievement of comprehension by adopting different types of CSs with an extended notion of CS focusing primarily on information-based gaps rather than code-based gaps. The results showed a divergent pattern of NNS and NS strategy use. Two lucid trends detected were: a) the two parties were modest in keeping the goal of each exchange on track; and b) this conservative strategy which did not demand too much of each other with regard to interactional work, prevailed throughout the sessions. Confirmation checks were overwhelmingly used by NSs (80% out of all confirmation checks in the data). These confirmation checks were primarily information-based and largely related to problems in the lab session, such as equipment, material or laboratory procedure. On the other hand, confirmation checks used by NNS were basically on the past actions of the NS undergraduates' operation of lab tasks. In contrast, comprehension checks were exclusively used by NNSs (93%), whereas NSs never checked whether or not their messages had been understood by their interlocutors. All instances of confirmation checks used by NSs were code-based and concerned the NNSs' comprehension of their specific utterances. Contrastingly, most NNSs' comprehension checks dealt with the comprehension of the lab task. The authors concluded that the successful achievement of comprehension between NNSs and NSs in lab sessions was due to the joint efforts of both parties' "extensive use of conversational adjustments to negotiate meaning" (p.319). The authors also pointed out that the frequent interactional adjustments of the natural lab sessions may be attributed to the wide-ranging and unpredictable topics and lower importance attached to accuracy while delivering referential information.

Al-Humaidi (2002) studied how CSs were used by 81 EFL students and 7 lecturers to achieve mutual understanding in natural advising sessions over course-related issues. She viewed CSs as both individual attempts and joint efforts. Her study established the type and frequency of CSs by which students and teachers achieved mutual understanding and negotiated meaning. The results showed that diverse types and different patterns of CSs used. The strategies used by the students and teachers varied significantly. Approximations (semantic and syntactic) as well as code switching were used most commonly by the students while instructors used reformulations and confirmation checks more frequently. There were significant differences between the high and low proficiency groups in their use of certain CSs. Strategies like clarification requests and code switching were significantly more favored by the low proficiency group, while confirmation checks were popular with the high proficiency group.

Wannaruk (2003) investigated how Thai university students majoring in science and technology used CSs to solve communication problems in interviews with native English teachers by grouping them into different proficiency levels. It was found that the most frequently used CSs were 'modification devices' followed by 'nonlinguistic strategies', 'L1-based strategies', 'target language-based strategies', and 'avoidance strategies'. The findings indicated that students used different CSs to different degrees according to their language level. For instance, confirmation checks were not much found and were adopted by the students with high and moderate levels of oral proficiency. Pausing was used in all groups of students because the students needed some time to think about what to say next, but used more by the low proficiency students because they experienced more communication problems. However, instead of using pause fillers such as "er…, well…, like…" in order to keep the floor and tell the interviewers that they were thinking, most of them chose to keep quiet, which was interpreted by the researcher as a lack of strategy repertoire. Mimes, as aids to verbal output were found with all groups. The researcher's explanation is

that mimes were quite useful to facilitate comprehension when the students were not certain of the words they were using.

2. 3 Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature relevant to the current study from three main aspects: speech act theory, systemic-functional linguistics, communicative value of non-verbal behavior in conversation and notions of CSs. An insight into key ideas about speech act theory, particularly the illocutionary act and its implication in spoken discourse analysis and some existing classifications of illocutionary acts have been reviewed. Additionally, notion of systemic-functional linguistics concerning ideational and interpersonal meanings was briefed and communicative value of non-verbal behavior in conversation and some functions of non-verbal messages were elaborated. Literature about CSs was also reviewed in terms of the definition identification, classification and some existing taxonomies. Studies considered relevant to certain aspects with the current study were reviewed respectively under each discussed theoretical framework.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the research methodology used in conducting this case study. It begins with research design, research setting, participants and the description of the ACDs. Then it is followed by a presentation of the gathering and management of the data. Thirdly, the development of the PAs and CSs taxonomies is discussed. Finally, procedures, activities and the validity of data analysis will be elaborated.

3.1 Research Design

This is a case study which fundamentally focuses on exploring and describing certain aspects of the happenings in the ACDs in terms of GSs' non-verbal and verbal PAs and CSs. A case study methodology was adopted because the study aimed to descriptively and statistically provide an in-depth description of who did what with whom and how in academic speaking events termed as the ACDs in this study.

3.2 Research Setting

The study was conducted in the Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics program (hereafter MA program) at Prince of Songkla University (PSU) in Hat Yai, Thailand. English was the medium of instruction and also for communication in the ACDs. In the 2006 academic year, two international students attended the program.

3.3 Participants: MA Graduate Students (GSs)

The participants involved in this study were 11 GSs (including the researcher herself). Background information of the 11 GSs is shown in Table 3.1. They all agreed to be videotaped in the ACDs in three courses (see details of the three courses in Table 3.2 in the following section). It should be noted that there were totally 12 GSs in the MA program in the second semester of the 2006 academic year. However, one of them did not enroll in the Focus on Language Learner course. Therefore, her participation in the ACDs was not counted into the data but her contribution was referred to in data analysis stage for the discussion flow in the other two courses in which she did enroll.

Table 3.1: Demographic Information of Participants

Name	Gender	Age	L1	Previous Degree (s)	Formal English Teaching Experience	Experience Abroad
GS1	M	55	English	FCII (Insurance)	9-year teaching of adults in Thailand	5-year in Singapore & 9-year in Thailand
GS2	F	40	Thai	BA (English)	9-year teaching in college	1-month travel in Singapore and Malaysia
GS3	F	29	Thai	BA (English)	5-year teaching in secondary school	No
GS4	F	31	Thai	BA (English)	3-year teaching in college	No
GS5	F	35	Thai	BA (English)	7-year teaching in college	No
GS6	F	29	Thai	BA (History)	6-year teaching in primary school	No
GS7	F	34	Thai	BS (Psychology) & Graduate Diploma (Computer Science)	7-year teaching in middle school	3-year study in Australia
GS8	F	32	Thai	BA (English)	7-year teaching in college	No
GS9	F	23	Malay & Thai	BA (English)	No	4-year study in Malaysia
GS10	F	27	Malay & Thai	BA (Geography)	1-year teaching in college	No

GS11	F	31	Chinese	BA (English)	6–year teaching in college	1-year study in Thailand

Note: GS=graduate student; F=female, M=male, BA=Bachelor of Arts, BS=Bachelor of Social Science; FCII=Fellow of the Chartered Insurance Institute

As shown in Table 3.1, the GSs differ in their first language(s) (seven of them share the same mother tongue – Thai, two Muslim graduate students are bilingual with Malay as their home language and Thai as their school language, one English native speaker, and a Chinese), in their age ranging (from 23 to 55, with the majority in their 30s), in their geographical location, in the socio-cultural context of their schooling and in their working experience. In general, the participants were proficient speakers of English. They were competent in English because all of them had obtained a bachelor's degree or equivalent diploma. With the exception of the one native speaker who was exempted from the entrance test, all the others were accepted into the MA program after taking the PSU-GET (Graduate English Test of Prince of Songkla University). The GSs received much input of subject knowledge and experienced many ACDs sessions in the first semester. For that reason, they probably had a sufficient knowledge of subject matter and the intellectual capacity to enable them to understand the academic topics of discussions and to participate in those discussions.

3.4 A Description of the ACDs

On the whole, the ACDs were treated by the lecturers as both teaching and discussion session. The ACDs were information-based and the lecturers attached more importance to the GSs' contribution to the discussions rather than to assessing their language ability. For an immediate bird's-eye view of the ACDs, the basic information of the three courses is presented in Table 3.2. It is shown that the three courses, namely, the Seminar on Problems and Issues in Language Teaching (henceforward Seminar) course, the Research Methodology (hereafter RM) course,

and the Focus on the Language Learners (henceforth FLL) course, are characterized by an academic goal of fostering the GSs' active and critical participation in academic discussions. However, they are different in terms of topic allocation. In the semester of data collection, the discussion topics were pre-determined in the Seminar course and the FLL course, whereas the topics for discussion in the RM course were chosen by the specific presenter her/himself. The GSs were expected to actively participate in the ACDs since it was explicitly depicted in the orientation classes by each course lecturer that the percentages of their contribution of ACDs would be counted in the final course grades.

Table 3.2: Information about the Three Courses

Title of Course	Focus and Characteristics	Percentage of Contribution to Final Grade
Seminar on Problems and Issues in Language Teaching & Learning (Seminar)	**Discussion of lecturer-introduced topics about problems and issues in language teaching and learning, in which many subtopics were laid for graduate students to choose to research and then present.** Lecturers' introduction to each topic before a seminar on the topic and graduate students' oral presentations in the seminar served as input for discussion. Graduate students were told to share their opinions and exchange messages under certain topics.	15%
Research Methodology (RM)	**Discussion of self-chosen research articles and graduate students' individual research ideas.** Individual graduate student's presentations of self-selected articles serves as input for discussion and ACDs were also treated as teaching sessions by the lecturer to teach graduate students how to conduct academic research. Graduate students were informed to be open-minded to different ideas and suggestions.	15%
Focus on the Language Learner (FLL)	**Discussion of lecturer-assigned articles about learner-centeredness.** In each ACD, an article assigned by the lecturer before the class was presented by a graduate student in the class and jointly served as input for discussion. Graduate students were expected to share their opinions of, experience in, and suggestions for/or problems of applying the notion of learner-centeredness to English teaching.	20%

It should be noted that the follow-up discussions in the Seminar course were about the individual GSs' findings on the lecturer-launched topic and the FLL course was basically centered on the content of the lecturer's pre-assigned articles, whereas discussion in the RM course covered both a self-chosen research article and the presenter's own thesis research plan. It is worthy of notifying that the time allocation for discussion sessions in each course was also different. In the Seminar course, the GSs were informed that they had 15 minutes in total for both their presentation and the follow-up discussion. If the GS spent all the 15 minutes on his/her presentation, there would be no time for his/her discussion session. In the other two courses, although the length of time for discussion sessions was specified in the course orientation, the actual length of time for discussions was flexible.

In the ACDs, the GSs sat in a semi-circle facing one another, with the lecturers taking vacant seat among the GSs (see seating arrangements in the ACDs setting in Appendix A). The ACDs were characterized by the GSs being mainly responsible for managing the discussion flow, with the teacher taking the double role of participant and facilitator as needed. Within this context, teachers relinquish their expert roles and allow students to freely initiate and answer questions that are important to them, and to lead the discussion in the direction they want it to go. Everyone was supposed to take responsibility for co-leading and sharing ideas in the ACDs.

3.5 Data Collection

3.5.1 Recording of the ACDs

The ACDs data were video adopted because it could allow to replay a sequence of interaction repeatedly for multiple viewers, and on multiple occasions (Jordan & Henderson, 1995). Prior to videotaping, the researcher talked to the head of the program, the lecturers of the three courses, and the GSs who were the researcher's fellow classmates were contacted to explain the exact nature, purpose, and methods of this study and to obtain support and permission for conducting videotaping in the ACDs.

Data were collected by videotaping all ACD sessions in three courses in the second semester of the 2006 academic year (November, 2006-January, 2007) in the MA program of Applied Linguistics, Department of Languages and Linguistics, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus. Videotaping was used to capture the GSs' behavior in the ACDs as comprehensively as possible.

The videotaping session was tried out on November 28, 2007 in the Focus on the Language Learner course a twofold purpose: a) to try out the videotaping facilities and to familiarize the technician with what should be captured; b) to get the GSs accustomed to the presence of the videotaping facilities and the cameraman. It was hoped that the tryout videotaping session would help to minimize a sense of intrusion.

For a comprehensive understanding of the topics discussed in the process of doing transcription, the recorded seasons included the presentation of the discussion leader to serve as an input and the follow-up discussions which were the focus of the present study. After several sessions of tryouts, the cameraman placed his facilities stationary in the front of the classroom to get a clear view of each subject's face and body gestures, which was considered to be the optimal position in which the GSs' behavior in the ACDs could be captured as fully as possible. Additionally, the

cameraman hung a microphone in the center of the classroom or sometimes left it on the teacher's desk pointing to the GSs in order to obtain a good auditory quality.

The fact that the only one camera was positioned in a stationary location suffered from the disadvantage that some segments of the ACDs might be missed when a tape needed to be changed. The reason why the position of the camera had to be fixed was that sometimes the cameraman had other duties to fulfill when he was videotaping the ACDs for this study. Moreover, the seating arrangement (see Appendix A) in the ACDs was another factor accounting for some missed segments, especially the non-verbal PAs and CSs of the GSs who were seated in line with the camera. Consequently, in most cases, if the camera was pointed to the line where GS11, GS10, GS9, GS8, GS7 were seated, GS11's behavior could be captured fully, whereas the behaviors of GS10, GS9, GS8, GS7 could not be captured adequately because GS11's figure was an obstacle. Only their bodily movements such as "leaning forward" or "changing their body posture" could be captured on the videotape, which were counted as non-verbal PAs and CSs in this study could be videotaped. However, the rest of the GSs' behavior could be captured adequately in terms of their body movement and facial expressions since they were more or less fully within the view of the camera for most of the time.

3.5.2 The ACDs Data Corpus

Approximately 66 hours of videotaped recordings were obtained covering both presentation and discussion sessions in the three courses. Since the present research solely focused on the follow-up discussion sessions, namely ACDs, the 66-hour videotaped recordings were segmented. Eventually, approximately 16 hours of recordings covering only discussion sessions were identified and termed as ACDs data corpus.

3.5.3 Selected ACDs data

It was apparent that the approximately 16 hours of raw ACDs data corpus were excessive for the needs and the scope of the current case study, therefore, data selection became necessary. The data selected for analysis had to be complete, comparable and rich, satisfying the following criteria: a) with the full attendance of all 11 GSs; b) be rich in content (i.e. more than 3 GSs' active participation in each ACD); and c) with each GS having at least one chance of being the presenter. The total length of the selected data from each course amounted to about 85 minutes (with the first seminar session in the Seminar on Problems and Issues in Language Teaching course, of which the length of discussion time was 85 minutes in total, as a baseline)

After sifting through all the raw ACD data guided by the established criteria for selecting qualified ACD data, approximately 255 minutes of ACD data, representing 85 minutes from each course, were selected from the approximately 16-hour ACD data corpus. The selected ACD data are presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Selected ACDs Data

Presenter	**Courses**				
	Research methodology			**Seminar**	**FLL**
GS1	**/**	**/**	**/**	7`55``	**/**
GS2	30`	25` 40``	/	5`10``	22`50``
GS3	33` 20``	/	/	4`50``	/
GS4	/	/	11` 40``	/	12`10``
GS5	/	32` 50``	/	9`20``	/
GS6	25`30``	/	/	9`15``	21`20``
GS7	/	/	/	11`30``	/
GS8	15`20``	/	/	6`45``	/
GS9	/	/	/	10`	/
GS10	/	/	/	8`30``	29`
GS11	/	/	/	12`	/
Total	**85`20``**			**85 25``**	**85`20``**

Note: ` stands for minute, `` stands for second, / means no selection

3.5.4 Transcription

After particular ACD data was selected, they were transcribed by using the Cyberlink PowerDVD program and Microsoft Office Word 2003. The transcripts in the present study contain a full representation of the GSs' talk. They also include the present researcher's annotations for non-verbal behaviors, such as hand gestures, changes in body position, gaze, and the like. The transcription conventions used in the present study was adapted from Walters (2007), Dufficy (2005) and Seedhouse (2004) (see Appendix B). For the sake of the accuracy of transcripts, some indistinct segments in certain ACDs were verified and confirmed by the GSs (A sample transcript is presented in Appendix C)

3.6 Data Analysis

3.6.1 Development of Analysis Frameworks for the Present Study

In order to explore the GSs' use of PAs and CSs, it was necessary to establish analysis frameworks for both of them. Two initial analysis frameworks of PAs and CSs were developed on the basis of the existing taxonomies of PAs and CSs and the researcher's experience of the ACDs in the three courses. As the analyses were being conducted, the taxonomies were refined and redefined. Therefore, the PAs and CSs taxonomies used in the current study were developed through a process of constant modification and improvement. The procedures of the whole process of taxonomy development are detailed below.

3.6.2 Initial Analysis Frameworks

Since the present study is innovative in nature, it covers a wide variety of PAs and CSs including those verbal acts whose prototypes may or may not have been previously identified in the literature and those non-verbal ones which may be entirely unique to the present study. Therefore, the existing speech act lists, categories of non-verbal communication behavior and CS taxonomies, representative of the types of taxonomies in the literature (discussed in Chapter 2), were evaluated in relation to the ACD data in order to develop comprehensive taxonomies appropriate to the current study. Attempts to produce comprehensive and descriptive PA and CS taxonomies suited to the current study were made by sifting through the existing ones, eliminating redundancies, and adding categories that emerged from the ACD data but were not covered in the existing literature. Subsequently, reasons why there was a need to make some modifications to develop analysis frameworks, namely, PAs and CS taxonomies for the present study were elaborated.

Given that gestures were used both alone and cooperatively with verbal utterances to get messages across, in the present study, non-verbal behavior or bodily gestures were regarded as the idiosyncratic movements transmitting messages or accompanying a speech in expressing meaning in ACDs. One distinction which should be made here is that when non-verbal gestures were used alone or companied the verbal utterances to participate in discussions, they were counted as PAs. On the other hand, when they were used to smooth the communication channel, they were analyzed as non-verbal communication strategies.

3.6.2.1 Initial PA Analysis Framework

The term *Participation Acts* was coined in this study to refer to the GSs' non-verbal behaviors and verbal utterances in the ACDs with the purpose of exploring and describing the GSs' behavior in the ACDs.

The concept of verbal PAs was adopted from the illocutionary acts proposed by Austin (1962) and Searle (1969), and their definition was also based on Halliday's (1985) systemic-functional linguistics. In addition to that, the researcher's familiarity with her peer GSs' behavior in the ACDs shed light on the establishment of the PA taxonomy. The initial categories of the framework for the analysis of verbal PAs evolved from Klippel's (1984) and Hatch's (1992) classifications of speech acts (discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.1.3).

The classifications of speech acts reviewed in the literature are neither all relevant nor all-inclusive to describe the GSs' behavior in the ACDs. Austin's (1962) model of performatives and constatives, and Searle's (1969) model of representatives (e.g. asserting), directives (e.g. requesting), commissives (e.g. promising), expressives (e.g. thanking), and declarations (e.g. appointing) do not suit the purposes of a description of casual conversations as they stand (Cutting, 2001), because human interaction serves not only a transactional function (act functioning to express the content of the message) but also an interactional one (act functioning to express social relations and personal attitudes with intention to interact) (Yule & Brown, 1983). The conceptualization of the PA framework in this study, then, is an expansion of the existing categories of Klippel (1984) and Hatch's (1992) classifications of speech acts. More categories were subsumed to accommodate the features of real-life conversations such as phatic fillers and backchannel cues as well as non-verbal features which were not included in the previous classifications. The initial framework of PAs is outlined in Figure 3.1.

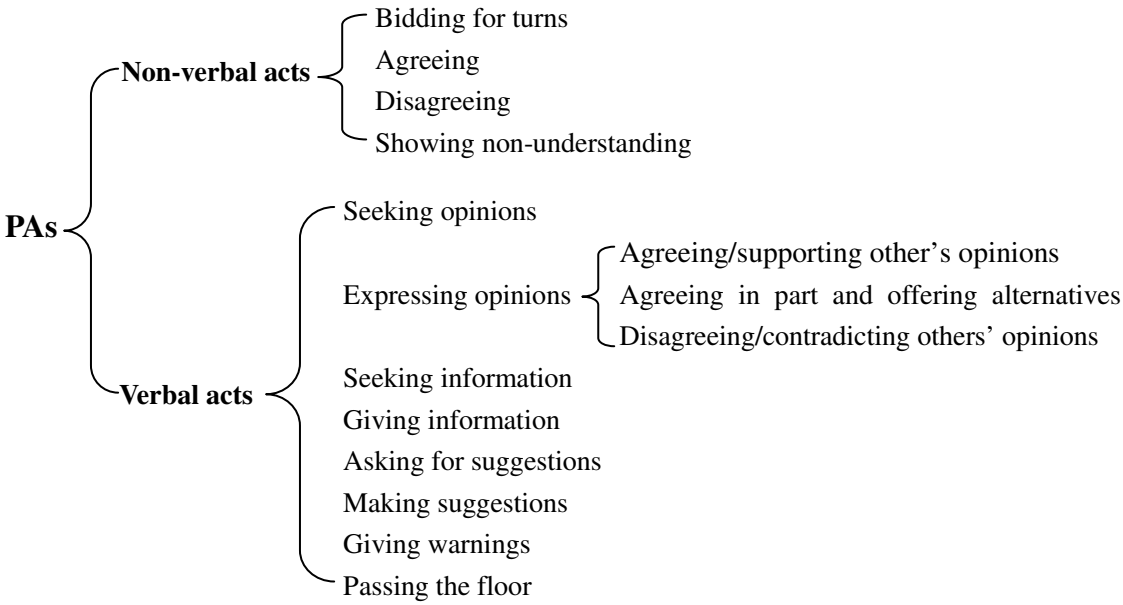

Figure 3.1: Initial PA Analysis Framework

It consisted of two main types: non-verbal and verbal PAs. The non-verbal PAs were subcategorized into four types, namely bidding for turns, agreeing, disagreeing, and showing non-understanding. In categorizing non-verbal PAs, the information-based nature of the ACDs was taken into consideration since the ACDs context may influence the speaker's non-verbal behavior, and therefore affects their responses to their interlocutors' non-verbal messages in specific situations (Barker & Gaut, 1996). For instance, a simple nod can have the different meanings of expressing agreement, showing understanding or signaling acceptance depending on the context in which it occurs. The verbal PAs were divided into eight subcategories: seeking opinions, expressing opinions, seeking information, giving information, asking for suggestions, making suggestions, giving warnings, and passing the floor. Additionally, three subcategories, named agreeing/supporting other's opinions, agreeing in part and offering alternatives, disagreeing/contradicting others' opinions were further nested in expressing opinions (See Appendix D for the initial PA taxonomy).

3.6.2.2 Initial CSs Analysis Framework

CSs in this study were firstly grouped into non-verbal and verbal strategies. Once again, the non-verbal CSs used by graduate students were grouped based on the notion of non-verbal communication and the researcher's experience as a participant in the ACDs. The verbal CSs were sub-grouped into individual strategies and interactional strategies. Reduction and achievement strategies were nested into individual strategies by modifying the taxonomies of Færch and Kasper (1983a) and Willems (1987). Since English was the instruction and communication medium in the ACDs; L1-based strategies like code-switching, transferring, translating, and formal reduction strategies at the phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical levels in their taxonomies could be ruled out. Both individual attempts and joint efforts were expected in the ACDs owing to the nature of the ACDs which were message-oriented; thus, both psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives are called for to establish the potential CSs used by the GSs. In this area, the most thorough review of CSs research was conducted by Dörnyei and Scott (1997) based on nine taxonomies adopting both psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives and which included an inventory in which 33 CSs from nine taxonomies adopting both psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives were referred to. In addition, CS taxonomies constructed by Williams et al (1997), Bejarano et al (1997), and Al-Humaidi (2002) from a sociolinguistic perspective were also consulted. Finally, an initial analysis framework of CSs which combined individual and interactional strategies was constructed and is presented in Figure 3.2 (See Appendix E for the initial CSs taxonomy including their descriptions).

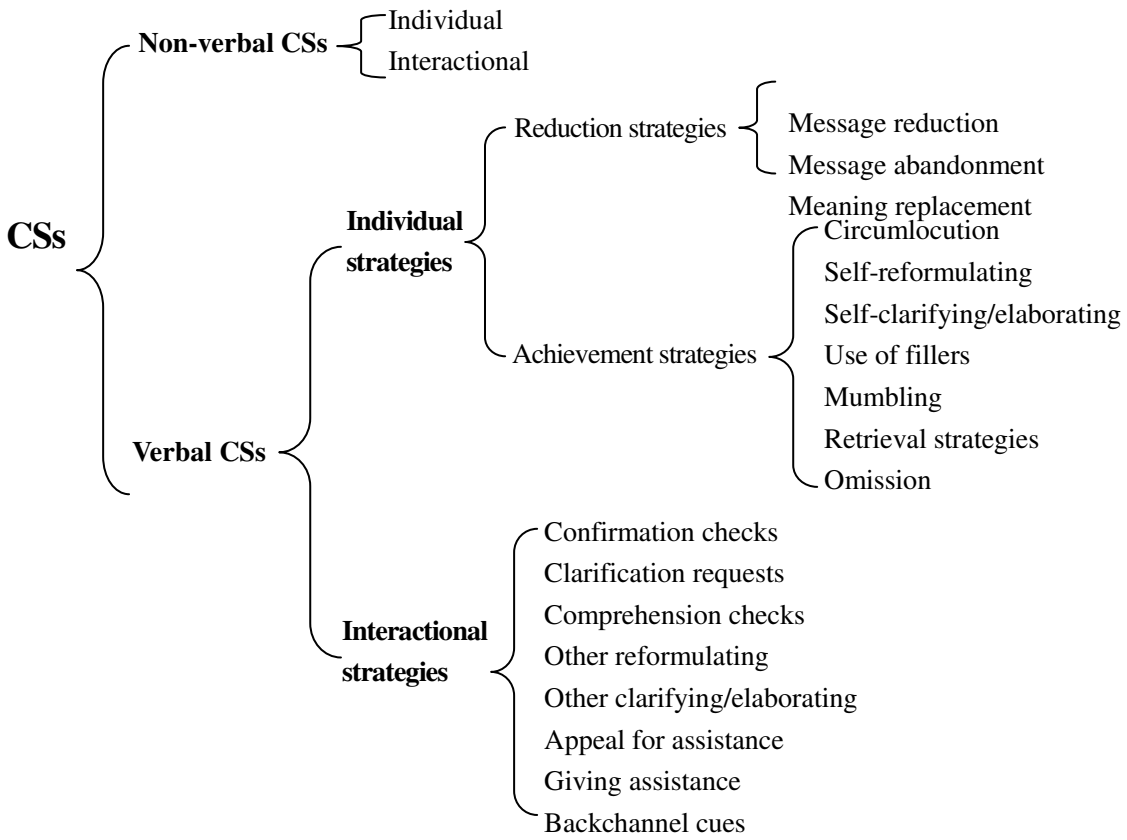

Figure 3.2: Initial CSs Analysis Framework

3.6.3 Tryout of Initial Analysis Frameworks

Since the present study was descriptive of a real life situation, the emergence of new categories of PAs in the research process was always possible. For this reason, the categories of PAs and CSs in the initial frameworks needed to be refined to comprehensively accommodate the real data. Therefore, a tryout of the PAs and CSs initial analysis frameworks was conducted in order to determine the extent to which the frameworks could accommodate the analysis of the data in the study.

Three ACDs which were not used in the main study were selected, one from each course, using the same criteria as those used in selecting the ACDs for the main study. The selected data were drawn from ACDs with full attendance of all 11 GSs and included participation by more than three GSs. Altogether, 27 minutes accounting for approximately 10% of the total 255-minute-length ACDs in the main study were extracted, 9 minutes from each course (with the 9-minute length of discussion time in the first seminar session from the Problems and Issues in Language Teaching course as a baseline). A refinement of the PAs and CSs initial analysis frameworks followed as a result of the tryout.

3.6.4 Final PAs and CSs Taxonomies

The two refined taxonomies obtained from the tryout analysis were put into use with one-fifth of the selected data in order to see whether or not the two taxonomies could accommodate the data. In this process, they were constantly refined in light of new information while the transcription of the selected ACD data was undertaken. To be specific, the categories of verbal PAs from the initial PAs framework were modified by referring to He and Dai's (2006) identification of eight Interactional Language Functions (ILFs), which provided detailed categories, concrete examples and clear explanations of Chinese college students' participation behavior in group discussion tasks during a national spoken test. Meanwhile, the representation of non-verbal PAs was readjusted by referring to the notion of non-verbal communication (Ruben & Stewart, 2006; Barher and Gaut, 1996; Berko, Wolvin, D. & Wolvin, R., 1995; DeVito, 1994; Verderber, 1993). Some categories in the initial CSs frameworks were polished and some new ones were added. The final lists of main types and subtypes of PAs and CSs taxonomies including their definitions and examples are presented in Appendices F and G.

3.6.5 Qualitative Data Analysis: Exploration and Identification of PAs and CSs

In order to answer the first research question, the transcripts from the ACDs were put into tables in order to identify the PAs and CSs used by a specific GS in each turn. For a clear sense of how the PAs and CSs were identified, an example is presented in Table 3.4.

For a clear distinction of PAs and CSs, the instances of PAs were marked bold, italicized and labeled alphabetically, a), b), c), and etc. where more than one PA occurred in one turn. The instances of CSs were italicized, underlined and labeled numerically (1), (2), (3) and etc. where more than one CS was used in one turn (See a sample of PAs and CSs identification tabulation in Appendix H

Table 3.4: An Example of PAs and CSs Identification

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs	CSs
9	***GS1:**	***a)*** (1) ***I think/ I think it's, I think that as most/ most (3+) of the writers I've read say, this is not a short process.*** (2) ***It's not a question of showing somebody how to do it. It's a question of changing somebody's attitude and it's not realistic to expect either the self access staff or the counsellors in the self access centre to carry out that function because they don't have the continued contact with the teachers Er, with the students.*** The only people who have long term contact with the students and who really can be of influence are the class teachers in my view.	**a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)**	**(1) Time-gaining strategies (V-CS5);** **(2) Self-elaborating (V-CS4)**

(Extracted from Seminar course;
Discussion topic: Helping self-access centre users to become autonomous learners;
Videotaped on 28 November, 2006)

3.6.6 Quantitative Data Analysis

To answer the second and the third research questions, the PAs and CSs identified in each ACD session were counted manually and tallied, then, converted into figures and recorded in tables using the Microsoft Excel program. Ultimately, PAs and CSs used across the three courses and by the 11 GSs were quantitatively analyzed by using Excel data analysis program and the SPSS package.

Since the second and the third research questions aimed to find out the typical types of PAs and CSs used across the three courses and by the 11 GSs, one-way ANOVA analysis was adopted as a method of verifying whether the mean numbers of PAs and CSs varied across three courses and by the 11 GSs as a group.

3.6.7 Validity of PAs and CSs Identification

The validity of PAs and CSs identification was, to a certain extent, established through the triangulated method. After the identification of the PAs and CSs occurring in all ACDs data was completed, several rounds of checking followed to confirm the identification of the PAs and CSs. Before being cross-checked by the researcher's supervisory team, clarification of some controversial aspects of the researcher's interpretation was made in order to achieve common agreement and to remove idiosyncratic biases based on the research's subjective interpretation. Furthermore, since the message carried by "nodding" as a non-verbal PA and simple verbal PAs like "yes" and "yeah" which were difficult to classify, a stimulated recall interview with each GS was conducted to guarantee an accurate interpretation of the intended message carried by his/her "nodding", "yes" and "yeah". In the stimulated recall interview, selected segments of the ACD videotapes were played back to the

each GS. In addition, whole transcripts of the selected ACD sessions, with the researcher's identification of his/her certain of his/her PAs and the PAs taxonomy were also provided. Then the GS was asked to respond to three guided questions: 1) when a speaker was expressing his/her opinions, his/her "nodding", "yes", "yeah" means…; 2) when a speaker was giving information, his/her "nodding", "yes", "yeah" means…; and 3) when a lecturer was giving information, his/her "nodding", "yes", "yeah" means....Three choices were provided for GSs in answering the three guided questions: a) showing understanding, b) showing agreement and c) showing attention. Meanwhile, their comments were also encouraged. It was found that almost all GSs agreed on the researcher's interpretation of their PAs. GS2, GS7 and GS8 also specified that their "nodding" upon the occasion of a speaker asking a question represented their understanding or agreement of the questions being asked in certain contexts. Thus, the PA and CS taxonomies presented in Appendix F and G were finalized and used in this study.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the findings and discussions addressing the two research questions raised in Chapter 1, Section 1.2. To answer the first question, the types and the extent of PAs and CSs used by the GSs in the ACDs will be reported. Instances of the typically used PAs and CSs were quoted and discussed. Statistical analyses were conducted to determine whether there existed statistically significant differences in the use of PAs and CSs in the ACDs. Significant points concerning the nature of the ACDs, different discussion topics, cultural factors and the degree of the lecturer's scaffolding in the ACDs were considered to ascertain a pertinent interpretation of PAs and CSs. To tackle the second question, the typical types of PAs and CSs used across the three courses were explored and statistical analyses were conducted to determine whether there existed statistically significant differences in the use of PAs and CSs across the three courses.

4.1 Research Question 1: What types of PAs and CSs were used by the GSs in the ACDs? To what extent were they used? Were there variations of PAs and CSs used by the GSs in the ACDs?

In addressing the first question, the types and the extent of the PAs and CSs used in the ACDs in terms of their frequency, percentage and rank are summarized in Tables 4.1 and 4.2 respectively. Meanwhile, Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2 present a holistic picture of PAs and CSs in the ACDs. Typical instances were quoted from the three courses to present in detail the occurrences of PAs and CSs used by the GSs in the context of the ACDs. Finally, ANOVA analyses were conducted to determine whether there were differences in use of PAs and CSs in the ACDs.

4.1.1 PAs and CSs Used in the ACDs

4.1.1.1 Types and Extent of PAs in the ACDs

As it can immediately be seen from Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1, 26 of the 28 types of PAs, 7 out of the 8 types of non-verbal PAs and 19 out of the 20 types of verbal PAs were used by the 11 GSs in the ACDs. The finding that 26 types of various PAs were used by the GSs contradicts Jones' (1999) contention that graduate students' participation in class discussion is unitary rather than diverse. Two types of unused PAs were ***non-verbally showing disagreement (NV-PA6)*** and ***verbally showing disagreement (V-PA6).*** The non-occurrence of the two PAs may be attributed to the nature of the ACDs. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the ACDs, which were information-based, were adopted by the lecturers in the MA program as a means of conducting classes with the common aim of exchanging information over academic issues among the GSs who were expected to be critical and open-minded about different ideas. Therefore, a cooperative and supportive atmosphere had been established since the time that the GSs were oriented into the program.

It has been established that culturally, Thais prioritize a harmonious relationship of people who are part of the group or the community (Vongvipanond, 1994) and they are more likely to be compromising rather than confrontational in the face of controversial issues (Niratpattanasai, 2001). Additionally, showing disagreement verbally or non-verbally may be face-threatening to both listeners and speakers bearing in mind that the majority of the GSs were Asian bred. Moreover, as MA candidates, the GSs were linguistically competent in using diverse ways to express themselves or reason out their ideas eloquently in the ACDs. Thus, it is reasonable to accept the fact that ***non-verbally showing disagreement (NV-PA6)*** and ***verbally showing disagreement (V-PA6)*** were not used in the ACDs.

Table 4.1: Summary of PAs in the ACDs

Main Types	Subtypes	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Rank
Non-verbal PAs	Bidding for turns (NV-PA1)	81	2.44%	9
	Granting turns (NV-PA2)	17	0.51%	15
	Showing agreement (NV-PA3)	144	4.33%	7
	Showing understanding (NV-PA4)	148	4.45%	6
	Showing attention (NV-PA5)	798	24.00%	**+2**
	Showing disagreement (NV-PA6)	***0***	***0.00%***	*
	Showing incomprehension (NV-PA7)	8	0.24%	**(-3) 20**
	Passing the floor (NV-PA8)	2	0.06%	**(-1) 22**
	Sum	**1198**	**36.03%**	
Verbal PAs	Bidding for turns (V-PA1)	70	2.11%	11
	Granting turns (V-PA2)	13	0.39%	18
	Showing agreement (V-PA3)	87	2.62%	8
	Showing understanding (V-PA4)	74	2.23%	10
	Showing attention (V-PA5)	950	28.57%	**+1**
	Showing disagreement (V-PA6)	***0***	***0.00%***	*
	Showing incomprehension (V-PA7)	40	1.20%	12
	Showing uncertainty (V-PA8)	12	0.36%	19
	Seeking opinions (V-PA9)	34	1.02%	14
	Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)	254	7.64%	**+4**
	Agreeing and supporting other's opinions (V-PA10.2)	12	0.36%	19
	Agreeing in part and offering alternatives (V-PA10.3)	12	0.36%	19
	Disagreeing/contradicting others' opinions (V-PA10.4)	35	1.05%	13
	Seeking information (V-PA11)	165	4.96%	5
	Giving information (V-PA12)	293	8.81%	**+3**
	Making warnings (V-PA13)	15	0.45%	17
	Making suggestions (V-PA14)	34	1.02%	14
	Acknowledging (V-PA15)	16	0.48%	16
	Directing the discussion flow (V-PA16)	8	0.24%	**(-3)20**
	Passing the floor (V-PA17)	3	0.09%	**(-2)21**
	Sum	**2127**	**63.97%**	
	Total	**3325**	**100.00%**	

Note: 1. * indicates the types of unused PAs across the three courses.

2. + plus a number means the high frequency of PAs found across the three courses.

3. – plus a number in parenthesis represents the low frequency of PAs found across the three courses.

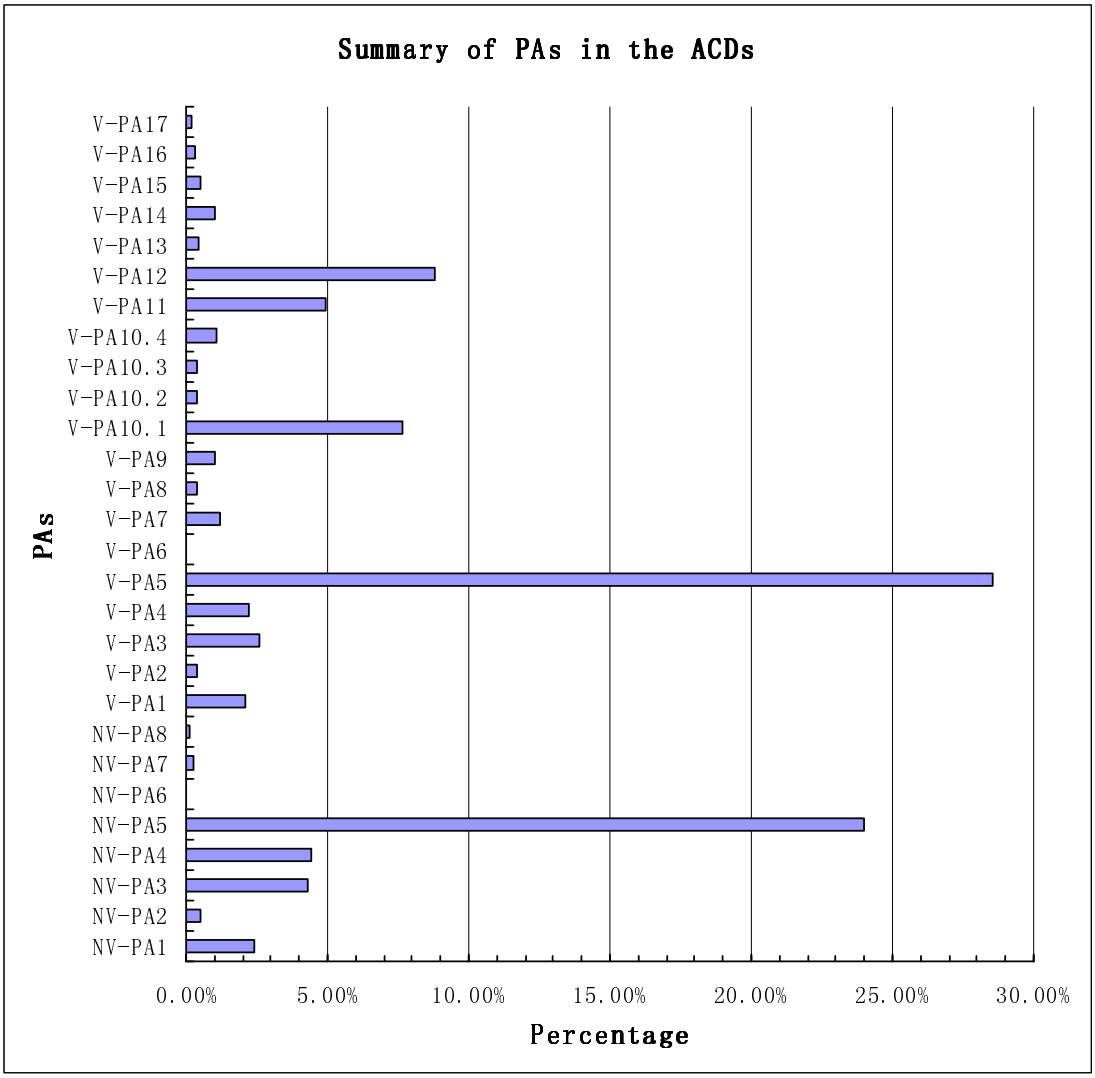

Figure 4.1: Summary of PAs in the ACDs

Note: Please see Table 4.1 for the full names of PAs.

A further investigation of the results presented in Table 4.1 reveals that the total number of PAs used in the ACDs corpus was 3,325. It is noticeable that the use of verbal PAs, 63.97%, is greater than that of non-verbal PAs at 36.03%. The findings at this stage suggest that the GSs were, to a great extent, verbally involved in the ACDs. The main impetus for this tendency may stem from the GSs' interests in speaking out in the ACDs as well as the lecturers' expressed expectations, from which the GSs were fully aware that their involvement, especially their verbal participation,

would be both expected and assessed. Additionally, as the GSs were MA candidates, they were both verbally competent and had the requisite linguistic and subject knowledge to handle the discussion topics. Meanwhile, the face-to-face situation in the ACDs undoubtedly rendered the GSs' non-verbal communication visible to other GSs and this became an exploitable and important aspect of message transmission (Barker & Graut, 1996). The GSs' non-verbal PAs accounted for one-third of all PAs functioning to replace, modify, or add information which was not or not sufficiently conveyed by their linguistic utterances. In terms of the interpersonal and interactive functions of the non-verbal PAs, they helped to express the illocutionary force of utterances and direct the course of the interaction. In this respect, the finding at this point is in line with Kendon's (1995) finding that gestures can work independently or cooperatively with verbal utterances to carry the meaning of the message in face-to-face interaction.

Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 show apparently that the four most frequently used types of PAs in the current study were **verbally showing attention (V-PA5)** (28.57%), **non-verbally showing attention (NV-PA5)** (24.00%), **verbally giving information (V-PA12)** (8.81%) and **expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)** (7.64%). Interestingly, the first two frequently used PAs had the same function of showing attention and cumulatively accounted for more than one half of the PAs used. The next two most frequently used PAs, verbally giving information (V-PA12) and expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1), on the other hand, accounted for similar percentage of the PAs. Contrastingly, the four types of PAs used least frequently in this study were **non-verbally passing the floor (NV-PA8)** (0.06%), **verbally passing the floor (V-PA17)** (0.09%), **non-verbally showing incomprehension (NV-PA7)** (0.24%), **and verbally directing the discussion flow (V-PA16)** (0.24%). It is notable that the two least used PAs also had the same function of passing the floor and the next two least frequently used PAs were identical in percentage.

4.1.1.2 Types and Extent of CSs in the ACDs

Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2 show that 12 out of the 14 categories of CSs were resorted to by the GSs in the ACDs. Among those, 2 out of the 3 of non-verbal CSs and 10 out of the 11 of verbal ones were used. The category defined as **non-verbal reduction strategies (NV-CS1)** and **verbal comprehension checks (V-CS9)** were not used by the GSs in the ACDs. To understand the possible cause of the non-occurrences of these two CSs, one should be aware that the present study was conducted in a Thai setting with the GSs as MA candidates. The maintaining of 'face'-- being supportive and in harmony with group (Gieve & Clark, 2005; Huang, 2004; Niratpattanasai, 2001; Littlewood, 1999; Vongvipanond, 1994), for the GSs themselves as well as for their peers was therefore an obligatory aspect of their relationship both socially and within the context of the ACDs. With regard to the non-existence of non-verbal reduction strategies (NV-CS1), it can be observed by watching the video recordings of the ACDs that during discussions, all the GSs made great efforts to express themselves verbally instead of simply leaving an intended-message unfinished non-verbally. In respect of the non-existence of verbal comprehension checks (V-CS9), the reasons for this phenomenon are as follows. Since the GSs were MA candidates, comprehension checks undoubtedly signal that one cannot understand his/her interlocutor's utterances or messages, which may be interpreted as signaling linguistic inadequacy or a lack of content knowledge on the listener's part. Alternatively, it may also pose a threat to his/her interlocutor's face because it implicitly suggests that the speaker's utterances or messages may be unclear in language or vague in meaning. Additionally, as mentioned previously a supportive atmosphere was established among the GSs although they were encouraged to be critical in exploring academic issues. Taking all the above factors into consideration, the failure to employ non-verbal reduction strategies (NV-CS1) and comprehension checks (V-CS9) by the GSs in this study becomes understandable.

Table 4.2: Summary of CSs in the ACDs

Types of CSs		Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Rank
Non-verbal CSs	***Reduction strategies (NV-CS1)***	***0***	***0.00%***	*
	Achievement strategies (NV-CS2)	48	12.47%	4
	Appeal for assistance (NV-CS3)	5	1.30%	**(-3)10**
	Sum	**53**	**13.77%**	
Verbal CSs	Message abandonment (V-CS1)	52	13.51%	**+2**
	Message reduction (V-CS2)	3	0.78%	**(-2)11**
	Self-reformulating (V-CS3)	51	13.25%	**+3**
	Self-elaborating (V-CS4)	44	11.43%	5
	Time-gaining strategies (V-CS5)	79	20.52%	**+1**
	Mumbling (V-CS6)	30	7.79%	7
	Retrieval strategies (V-CS7)	13	3.38%	9
	Confirmation checks (V-CS8)	45	11.69%	6
	Comprehension checks (V-CS9)	***0***	***0.00%***	*
	Clarification requests (V-CS10)	14	3.64%	8
	Appeal for assistance (V-CS11)	1	0.26%	**(-1)12**
	Sum	**332**	**86.23%**	
Total		**385**	**100.00**	

Note: 1. * indicates the types of unused CSs across the three courses.

2. + plus a number means the high frequency of CSs found across the three courses.

3. – plus a number in parenthesis represents the low frequency of CSs found across the three courses.

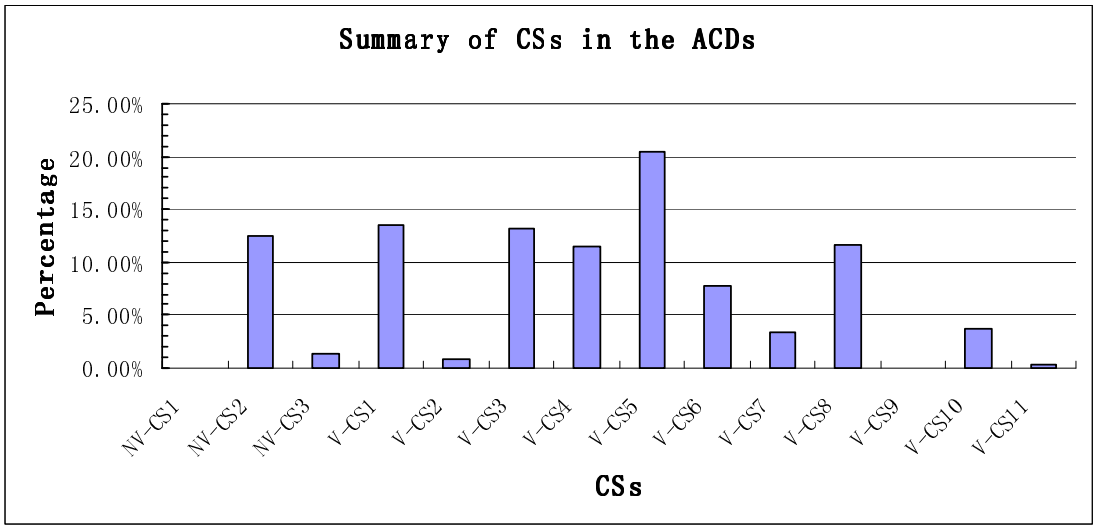

Figure 4.2: Summary of CSs in the ACDs

Note: Please see Table 4.2 for the full names of CSs.

In addition, the bar graph in Figure 4.2 makes apparent the extent of types of CSs which were called upon by the GSs in the ACDs. The graph reveals that **verbal time-gaining strategies (V-CS5)** (20.52%) were those most frequently called upon by the GSs to bridge communication gaps or to enhance the effectiveness of the message transmission in the ACDs. The second most frequently used CS was **verbal message abandonment (V-CS1)** (13.51%), followed by **verbal self-reformulating (V-CS3)** (13.25 %) as the third. Contrastingly, the three least frequently usedCSs located in the ACDs corpus were **verbal appeal for assistance (V-CS11)** (0.26%), **verbal message reduction (V-CS2)** (0.78%), followed by **non-verbally appealing for assistance (NV-CS3)** (1.30%).

4.1.2 Occurrences of the PAs and CSs Used in the ACDs

In order to have a comprehensive understanding of the PAs and CSs used, this section will illustrate these PAs and CSs by presenting some typical instances drawn from the three courses. The quoted excerpts were extracted from within a particular discussion session based on the general discussion topic. In the following excerpts, each turn is numerated and the GSs participants were numbered, the lecturers are referred to by a capitalized “L”. (See Appendix H for the sample of PAs and CSs identification).

Excerpt 1

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs	CSs
GS5: … and how about you? What do you think about this case? Is it self-access language learning? (000)				
1	GS2:	***a) Leaning forward and frowning.***	a) Showing incomprehension (NV-PA7)	
2	***GS5:**	(1) *((Gesture pointing to the board))* ***a) It may help you to/to try to think.***	a) Giving information (V-PA12)	(1) Achievement strategies (NV-CS2)
3	GS2:	***a) Did you ask your subject in the case study,*** (1) *that is, ask her about the goal, it means the today goal or other goal?*	a) Seeking information (V-PA11)	(1) Self-elaborating (V-CS4)
4	***GS5:**	***< a)Yeah.>***	a) Showing attention (V-PA5)	
5	***GS5:**	***a) Oh, it is Er/Er, for my case study I ask both, because I asked the first question, Er before you go to self-access centre*** you have a goal or not? And the other question is for today what are you trying to do? That means the today goal and the other goal (1) *((Hand gesture pointing leftwards means "the other")*	a) Giving information (V-PA12)	(1) Achievement strategies (NV-CS2)
6	GS2:	***a) So, goal can be the purpose?***	a) Seeking opinions (V-PA9)	
7	***GS5:**	***a) Yeah, can be, yeah it can be, it is study open and very wide for self access learning*** (000)	a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)	
8	GS2:	***a) We/we, if we do something we should have our purpose what we should***, (1) ***right?*** And same as the subject in your case they should have some goal but the goal in their mind is much different from the other one. ***b) The goal you mean should be learning by themselves or not?***	a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1) b) Seeking opinions (V-PA9)	(1) Confirmation check (V-CS8)
9	***GS5:**	***a) In fact Er, according to the author {subject} it seems to that she com***e to/to use the self-access centre because she was...her teachers asked her to come to study in self-access centre for 4 times, but after I sometime contact her, ***b) I think the/the teacher just asked her students to try to try to help the students to study***	a) Giving information (V-PA12); b) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1);	

		self-access, try to introduce the students to get through to self-access centre process, (1) ***I think, and after that it seems to focus on the learners themselves. They can manage their/their goal after that because*** when you come to the self-access centre not accessing, (2) ***it's Ok, right?*** If you don't have any goal but when you come to self-access centre then you have some thing to do. Ok, fortunately I will, you may/you may see that some of your friend do something interesting and then Ok, I can try this/this one or another one. It can be self-access centre. ***c) I may misunderstand.***	*c) Showing uncertainty (V-PA8)*	(1) Self-elaborating (V-CS4); (2) Confirmation check (V-CS8)
10	GS2:	***< a) Yes.>***	a) Showing attention (V-PA5)	
11	GS6:	***< a) Leaning forward ((nodding)).>***	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)	
12	GS2:	***< a) Leaning foreword and b) saying "access". >***	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5); b) Showing attention (V-PA5)	
13	GS11:	***< a) Raising her pencil.>***	a) Bidding for turns (NV-PA1)	
14	GS11:	a) ***I just wonder the learning the learning result*** if the learners are required by the lecturers to go to the self-access centre, and they may just find something interesting to do, listen to radio or watch film, ***how about their learning results?***	a) Seeking information (V-PA11)	

(Extracted from the Seminar course;
Discussion topic: Do the learners have their goal in using Self-Access Center?
Videotaped on 28 November, 2006)

The ACDs data presented above were drawn from the Seminar course. The topic of Self–Access English Language Learning was launched by the lecturer. Excerpt 1 was extracted from GS5's discussion session on the topic of *Do the learners have their goal in using Self-Access Center?* After she finished her presentation, questions were asked by GS5 in order to initiate a whole-class discussion. It should be noted that the questions raised by the discussion leader were not considered as data.

It can be seen from Excerpt 1 that in turn 1, GS2 did not understand GS5's questions, so she leaned forward displaying her incomprehension by frowning. In turn 2, being aware of GS2's puzzlement about the questions for discussion, instead of repeating the questions again, GS5 chose to give GS2 information by referring to the visual text of the questions on a PowerPoint slide both verbally and non-verbally. Here, the non-verbal behavior of giving information was counted as an achievement communication strategy since it helped to enhance the meaning of the message conveyed by GS5.

In turn 3, it is evident that in seeking information, GS2 realized that her initial question--"Did you ask your subject in the case study" was too broad, therefore she immediately called upon the strategy of self-elaboration to make her question specific by asking a question about the student's goal in learning in the self-access center. While listening to GS2's question, GS5 showed her attention verbally by saying "yeah" in turn 4 and then gave GS2 information in turn 5. Again, a non-verbal achievement communication strategy was used by GS5 to enhance her message. As the conversation continued, turn 6 to turn 9 consisting of an exchange between GS2 and GS5 seeking and expressing opinions about whether or not a goal can be a purpose in self-access learning. In turn 8, GS2 tried to confirm her understanding about "purpose" while expressing her opinions. She then further sought GS5's opinion about "goal" in learning. Then in turn 9, before expressing her own opinions directly, GS5 cited the explanation of the subject she had approached in her

case study and finished her ideas by saying that she might have misunderstood in order to show her uncertainty. While expressing her opinions, GS5 resorted to self-elaboration to make her message more distinct and confirmation checked to seek for affirmation. The following three turns consist of verbally and/or non-verbally showing attention. In turn 13, GS11 bid for a turn by raising her pencil and thereby brought to an end the discussion of this aspect of the topic. Turn 14 is quoted here simply to show that a new aspect of the topic under discussion, i.e. learning results, emerged as the discussion flowed onward.

It is interesting to notice that in turn 9, it seemed that GS5 tried to make her opinions convincing by quoting facts from her case study. However she finished her ideas by showing uncertainty of her own idea. The reason behind this may be that she felt academically diffident in presenting her opinions in front of three lecturers and a native-speaking peer, GS1. This phenomenon is in accordance with Basturkmen's (2003) claim that when competent members like lecturers or high proficient learners are present in discussions, students may feel humble about expressing their opinions.

Excerpt 2

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs	CSs
37	GS10:	***a) GS1, how about, b)*** (1) ***probably the subject is, what is their native language?*** (2) ***[???] is Spanish?***	a) Bidding for turns (V-PA1); b) Seeking information (V-PA11)	(1) Self-reformulating (V-CS3); (2) Mumbling (V-CS6)
38	GS1:	***a) No/no, they were Dutch. They were Dutch and they knew no Spanish.***	a) Giving information (V-PA12)	
39	GS10:	***a) How about*** (xxx)	a) Bidding for turns (V-PA1)	
40	GS1:	***a) (xxx) they knew no Spanish at all.***	a) Giving information (V-PA12)	
41	GS10:	***a) You said that it is still possible that student, the subjects can produce/produce the structure, but probably because of the subjects,***	a) Agreeing in part and offering alternatives	(1) Time-gaining

		(1) *they/they may use/they may use (3+)* their first language to compare (2) *((hand gesture means "compare"))* with the second language, so the structure is not too different, that's why (xxx) for knowledge.	(VPA10.3)	strategies (V-CS5); (2) Achievement strategies (NV-CS2)
42	GS5:	***< a) Leaning to GS10.>***	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)	
43	***GS6:**	***<a) Stepping forward to GS10 ((nodding)).>***	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)	
44	GS1:	{Overlapped turns: GS10 and GS1} ***< a) I think/I think the reason that they used*** (xxx)>	a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)	
45	GS1:	***a) I think the reason they used Spanish is because it's quite different from Dutch. It works in a different way from Dutch. That was why*** they used Dutch {Spanish} because it was something the students would never have encountered before. So I don't think they (xxx).	a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)	
46	GS9:	***a) So, I'd like to add something. b) You said that the students were trained some grammar and for their*** (1) *[???]*	a) Bidding for turns (V-PA1); b) Seeking information (V-PA11)	(1) Mumbling (V-CS6)

(Extracted from the RM course;
Discussion topic: Can second language grammar be learned through listening?
Videotaped on 30 November, 2006)

Excerpt 2 was extracted from a discussion session in the RM course, in which GS6 was the presenter and discussion leader. This particular aspect of the topic being discussed was initiated by GS10 with the verbal PA, turn-bidding (turn 37) and this was followed by her seeking information (turn 38). It is evident that while seeking information from GS1, GS10 realized that her question might have been unclear and therefore two CSs, namely self-reformulating (V-CS3) and mumbling (V-CS6) came into play. In turn 39, GS10 still intended to say something more by bidding for another turn, but GS1 continued to give information. There was then competition for the floor and the turns were overlapped between GS1 and GS10. Based on the information given by GS1, GS10 expressed her own opinions employing time-gaining and non-verbal achievement communication strategies. While GS10 was

expressing her opinions, GS5 (turn 42) and GS6 (turn 43) showed their attention while GS10 was talking. Contrastingly, in turn 44, GS1 intended to step into the floor with his opinions, but this became overlapped with GS10's turn. Realizing GS1's attempt to speak up, GS10 relinquished the floor and thereby GS1 continued expressing his opinions in turn 45. As the conversation continued, GS9 stepped into discussion by bidding for a turn to seek information. At this point, that aspect of the discussion topic at hand ended.

Excerpt 3

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs	CSs
24	**L:**	**That's a very good point. What do you think?** ***{Get others involved in discussion here}***		
25	GS1:	***a) You're writing for an audience,*** **(1)** ***aren't you?*** ***I think you simply have to assume that the audience that you're writing for is the person who's going to read it. b) You have to have an ideal audience in mind when you are writing.***	a) Seeking opinions (V-PA9); b) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1); c) Making suggestions (V-PA14)	(1) Confirmation checks (V-CS8)
26	**L:**	***{Making comments and expressing her opinions}*** **…be clear and…are you giving enough…I think we should organize this way or that way about who exactly is your reader, the notion of having someone reading your work… make sure they can follow…and that's the point…**		
27	GS11:	***< a) Leaning to the lecturer.>***	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)	
28	GS6:	***< a) Leaning to the lecturer.>***	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)	
29	GS4:	***< a) Leaning to the lecturer.>***	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)	
30	GS5:	***< a) Leaning to the lecturer b) ((nodding)).>***	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5); b) Showing understanding (NV-PA4)	
31	GS10:	***a) I think for GS6's point, b) if we Er concentrate on various variety of age or culture, sometimes, in, Er in terms of varieties, we know who are the readers, who will be the target, Er so it can help the writer*** to organize the ideas about the writing style,	a) Directing the discussion flow (V-PA16); b) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)	

		because, Er, we can/we can know our/our target that normally the students of low proficiency he writes the thesis or something, we know our target and we facilitate for the writer from that.	
32	GS6:	***< a) Leaning forward to GS10 b) ((nodding)).>***	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5); b) Showing agreement (NV-PA3)
33	GS5:	***< a) Leaning to GS10.>***	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)
34	**L:**	***{Making comments and suggestion}*** **Very good point…who is your target area, you can make a certain assumption like a certain tone… then you may…** **(Class all looking at the lecturer)**	

(Extracted from the FLL course;
Discussion topic: Peer reviews in the EFL composition classroom: what do the students think?
Videotaped on 5 January, 2007)

Excerpt 3 was drawn from the FLL course where the discussion topic was pre-assigned by the lecturer. It should be pointed out that a 'reader-based approach in writing' had been talked about in the previous turns. This excerpt began with the lecturer's intervention aiming to get more GSs involved in the discussion. In turn 25, GS1 expressed his opinions about the reader-approach and then made a suggestion on how to write under this approach. In order to make his opinion salient, he adopted a tag question confirmation check as a communication strategy. Turns 27-30 involved four GSs' showing attention or showing understanding about the lecturer's comments and opinions. In turn 31, GS10 expressed her opinions through directing the discussion flow to a certain point mentioned by GS6 previously. Being referred to, GS6 showed attention and agreement non-verbally in turn 32. In turn 33, GS5 also showed attention to GS10 non-verbally while listening to her opinions. Finally, this segment ended up with the lecturer's comments and suggestions. The whole class all looked at the lecturer while she was speaking. The behaviors of all the GSs here were noted as non-verbally showing attention.

4.1.3 The Most and the Least Frequently Used PAs

Following this holistic view of the used PAs and CSs in specific ACD situations, it is worth taking a close look at the extent to which some PAs and CSs were used most frequently and least frequently.

According to the rank order listed in Table 4.1, it can be seen that the two most frequently used PAs were used dramatically more frequently than the third and the fourth most frequently used ones. It can be noted that the higher occurrences of showing attention both verbally and non-verbally than those of giving information and expressing opinions are probably due to the context of the ACDs. It is natural that in the ACDs, showing attention verbally and non-verbally would be used collectively by GSs whereas giving information and expressing opinions could only be fulfilled by one GS at one time in the ACDs. From the rank list of PAs, the four least frequently used PAs seem to be related to the context of the ACDs. Among these, both verbally passing the floor and non-verbally passing the floor were used strikingly less than any other PAs. This phenomenon can be explained by the GSs' awareness of the lecturers' expectation that their participation and contribution were both expected and valued. Therefore, once a GS stepped into the discussion, they would try every possible way to control and maintain the floor. Meanwhile, the parallel low rates of non-verbally showing incomprehension and verbally directing the discussion flow may indicate this interrelationship, i.e. seeking clear understanding of the discussion topics and handling the discussion flow.

In order to make good sense of the four most-frequently-used and four least-frequently-used PAs, some typical instances are presented for discussion. Only the identification of PAs is shown in the following excerpts since only the PAs are of interest at this stage. In each excerpt, the PAs selected for specific consideration and discussion are shown in bold, italicized types and are labeled alphabetically a), b), c), etc. in view that more than one PA may appear in one turn.

4.1.3.1 Four Most-frequently-used PAs

+1. Verbally Showing Attention (V-PA5) (28.57%)

Excerpt 4

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs
185	GS1	*a) I think that's another good reason for not using a grammar test because* if the students know they can get through by just passing the grammar test (xxx)	a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)
186	*** GS6**	***< a)Ehh b)*** *(***) c) I will try/I will try to think about it.>* ***d)*** (***)	**a) Showing attention (V-PA5);** c) Acknowledging (V-PA15); **b), d) Showing attention (V-PA5) {whole class}**

(Extracted from the RM course;
Discussion topic: Can second language grammar be learned through listening?
Videotaped on 30 November, 2006)

Verbally showing attention (V-PA5) ranks the top on the list of the used PAs at 28.57% with its highest frequency of 950 times across the ACDs. Excerpt 4 exemplifies that the acts of showing attention vary from individual instances of uttering "*Yeah" "Uhn", "Em"* to the whole class bursting into laughter, which was interpreted as collectively showing attention of the whole class and tallied for each GS respectively. This phenomenon can be supported by Klerk's (1995) findings that in situations where speakers tried to speak when someone else was already holding the floor, they intended to "chime in" over the voice of another speaker simply to indicate active listening or heightened involvement, and minimal responses can be taken as a signal of cooperation and supportiveness. Meanwhile, it should be pointed out that whole class laughter occurred quite often across the three courses, which can be noted as a striking phenomenon in this study. This may be counted as the involvement aspect of face, which refers to a person's desire to be considered a supporting and contributing member of society (Scollon and Scollon 1995). Moreover, the findings strongly suggest that the GSs may have had great interest in the discussion topics and that they were quite animated in the ACDs.

+2. Non-verbally Showing Attention (NV-PA5) (24.00%)

Excerpt 5

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs
36	GS1	*a) They can, but of course if they are not brought up with that view of themselves, as having the right to direct their own lives. Then/then they/they start off from/from a cultural position* which is/which is not the same as the view of people in the west, who are brought up virtually form birth, to be/to be told that they are independent that they are in control of their own lives. *b) That's quite different from a lot of people in Asia.*	a) Agreeing in part and offering alternatives (VPA10.3); b) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)
37	GS3	***< a) Leaning forward to GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**
38	GS6	***< a) Leaning forward to and watching GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**
39	GS5	*< a) Nodding.>*	a) Showing agreement (NV-PA3)
40	GS7	***< a) Leaning forward to GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**

(Extracted from the Seminar course;
Discussion topic: Learning training enhances understanding of SALL: a reflection of a student;
Videotaped on 28 November, 2006)

Excerpt 6

L1:	{Questions for further thinking} ---Who actually set the goal? Talk about learner training? ***Whole class paying attention by leaning forward or watching*** **{Whole-class} Showing attention (NV-PA5)**

(Extracted from the Seminar course;
Discussion topic: Learning training enhances understanding of SALL: a reflection of a student;
Videotaped on 28 November, 2006)

Non-verbally showing attention (NV-PA5) (24.00%) ranks the second on the list of the PAs used in the present study. As we can see in Excerpt 5, different approaches were adopted by the GSs to show their attention in the ACDs, such as leaning forward to or watching the person speaking. One should bear in mind that the interpretation of both verbally and non-verbally showing attention were verified during the stimulated recall interviews with the GS participants (see Chapter 3 for details). The finding at this point reveals that the GSs were non-verbally attentive to the on-going discussions. The reasons behind this may be attributed to three aspects. Firstly, since the GSs were aware that their performance would be graded, it might have represented their best choice to display involvement by non-verbally showing their attention when they did not have access to the discussion floor. Secondly, some GSs may have felt comfortable listening actively but mutely during discussions. Thirdly, as shown in Excerpt 6, the GSs wanted to be supportive and respectful while listening to their interlocutors, especially their lecturers and to show their attention in a collective way within the group. The finding at this point may be traced to the mainstream culture of the research setting. The study was conducted in a Thai context with a majority of the participants being brought up and educated in Asia and only one native speaker subject who had been in Thailand for nine years. As noted by Cheng (2000) Asian students are deferential and attentive in class and show their respect to the lecturers or other speakers who are perceived as competent members of the group. In doing so, a sense of membership of the discussion community is established. This position is supported by Cutting's (2001) finding that students talk within the group to show solidarity. It is worthwhile pointing out that non-verbally showing attention (NV-PA5) which took the form of "looking at" a person while s/he was speaking prevailed in the ACDs. This indicates that the GSs involved in discussions may have looked at one another to coordinate turn-taking, to signal interest and/or attention, and to monitor listener understanding and/or acceptance.

A better understanding of the possible factors leading to the highest rates of **verbally showing attention (V-PA5)** (28.57%) and **non-verbally showing attention (NV-PA5)** (24.00%) may be obtained by reference to the nature of the ACDs and the backgrounds of the GSs. As previously discussed, the ACD was a forum provided by the course lecturers for the GSs to speak their minds and to share information with their peers. It was of crucial importance to both the tutors who used this opportunity to teach and assess understanding of the GSs, and the GSs themselves, whose presumed aims were supposed to enhance their academic capacity and to impress the tutors with professional competence. With this in mind, it is understandable that the GSs attempted to demonstrate their involvement verbally and explicitly in discussions. Meanwhile, being aware that their participation was expected and was being assessed by the lecturers and that their contribution were valued by their peers, particularly by the discussion leaders, verbally showing attention (V-PA5) and non-verbally showing attention might have been the easiest means of showing involvement during discussions. In brief, the conclusion could be drawn that the overall flow of discussions were smooth and favorable as the GSs were attentive and supportive in the ACDs.

+3. Giving Information (V-PA12) (8.81%)

Excerpt 7

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs
1	GS6	*a) Can you explain again about the T-unit?*	a) Seeking information (V-PA11)
2	***GS5**	***a) OK, then I can, I try to count the words in the T-unit. If*** in the/the *pre-, pretest,* if I ask maybe "are you students?" Maybe they just answer me with yes or no, but after the role play treatment, maybe they, I am not sure, maybe they will tell me "Yes, I am a student, I am study at Nakhon Si Thamarat University. I am not sure". But I just want to compare the number of words from the first and the last period.	**a) Giving information (V-PA12)**
3	GS4	< *a) Nodding.*>	a) Showing understanding (NV-PA4)

4	GS9	*a) So you will do role play in English?*	a) Seeking information (V-PA11)
5	***GS5:**	***a) Yeah.***	**a) Giving information (V-PA12)**
6	GS9	*a) Oh, your target group{s} is adult or normal students?*	a) Seeking information (V-PA11)
7	GS2	*a) ((Raising hand)) b) The target group is adult students or just only normal students?*	a) Bidding for turns (NV-PA1); b) Seeking information (V-PA11)
8	***GS5**	***a) I'll try with adult students.***	**a) Giving information (V-PA12)**

(Extracted from the RM course;
Discussion topic: The effect of role-play on students' self-confidence in using English for communication;
Videotaped on 3 January, 2007)

Excerpt 7 provides a clear context in which seeking and giving information occurred. The discussion session was initiated by GS6 seeking for information in turn 1 about a certain aspect of the topic, concerning the "T-unit", which was mentioned in GS5's presentation. As the discussion leader, GS5 tried to carry out her responsibility to give information in turn 2 by citing at length examples from her future subjects and research context. As the discussion flowed onward, GS9 sought information from GS5 in turn 4 by using a statement with a rising tone about what the medium language in her role plays would be. In turn 5, GS5 responded simply with "yeah" thus confirming the point in GS9's statement. It should be pointed out that "yeah" used like this was interpreted as giving information because it does carry the message information. Similarly, turns 7 and 8 between GS2 and GS5 exemplifies vividly an information exchange. Since it has been repeatedly mentioned that the ACDs are information-based and aimed at exploring academic issues, it is not surprising that the percentage of **giving information (V-PA12)** (8.81%) ranked third on the list of the PAs used. The findings suggest that the GSs were mostly sharing with others what they had learned or prepared about the discussed topics rather than exploring the unknown. It has been noted by Mets (2003) that generally questions asking for facts, rather than questions seeking opinions or personal experiences, may be answered adequately by providing just the piece of information asked for. Thus, the frequency of giving information verbally appeared high in the ACDs.

+4. Expressing One's Own Opinions (V-PA10.1) (7.64%)

Excerpt 8

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs
	GS2*	***That's all for my presentation, anything you want to share?***	
1	GS3:	***a) For me I think portfolio is/is very effective for the learner.*** *b) But for/for Thai/for Thai learner, like you presented, they/they don't {are} not familiar with self study. They/ they {are}) familiar with the teachers' feedback, with them some-, sometimes when the teacher not feedback with them, they just swallow or follow?* ***c) And I/I think not only the teacher or the learner, in-, include, including the Thai educators,*** the government must/must think of this problem: do we go in the right way about self access language learning, learner?	**a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1);** b) Giving information (V-PA12); **c) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)**
2	GS6:	< *a) Leaning to and watching GS3.*>	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)
3	GS1:	< *a) Watching GS3.*>	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)
4	GS1:	***a) It seems to me that what we are looking at (xxx) is using the portfolio in order to discipline the learning process which to me seems to be completely away from self-access,*** completely out with what self access is about. If you have to stand there in front of effectively above the student and discipline their use, then self access is not working. This is not developing autonomous learning. *b) But something else that I thought was important that you said,* that was important was that the student felt one of the criticisms was that she didn't get any feedback from the teacher.	**a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1);** b) Agreeing and supporting other's opinions (V-PA10.2)

(Extracted from the Seminar course,
Discussion topic: Discussion topic: Is portfolio effective for the learners?
Videotaped on 28 November, 2006)

Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1) ranks as the fourth most frequently used PA in this study at 7.64%. The instance cited in Excerpt 8 shows that both GS3 and GS1 attempted to put forward their opinions about GS2's closing questions from her presentation. More importantly, GS1 not only expresses his own opinions but also tried to support GS3's views. It was observed that while discussing a certain aspect of the discussion topic in the ACDs, expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1) was not only used by the GSs to articulate their opinions about a speaker's opinion-seeking question but also to make their contributions of the matters in the presenter's findings or the lecturers' comments. The result at this point contradicted the stereotyped concept that Asian students tend to avoid expressing their opinions openly in classroom conversations (Gieve & Clark, 2005; Huang, 2004; Cheng, 2000; Littlewood, 1999). As the ACDs were information-based, as long as the GSs could produce ideas of whatever content about the discussion topics, they would be regarded as being engaged in the discussion. Meanwhile, it could also be inferred from these findings that the GSs were engaged in expressing their own ideas probably because it might have been safer and less-demanding to put forward one's own ideas than to respond to others' during discussions.

4.1.3.2 Four Least Frequently Used PAs

-1. Non-verbally Passing the Floor (NV-PA8) (0.06%)

Excerpt 9

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs
64	GS9	*a) So, if like that Er, b) the portfolio for your research, Right? You use English, so English somehow like the students are learning for, something like [???]* (000)	a) Bidding for turns (V-PA1); b) Seeking information (V-PA11)
65	***GS6**	***a) Hand gesture offering the floor to the class.***	**a) Passing the floor (NV-PA8)**
66	GS10	*a) ((Raising her hand for a turn)) b) May I add something?*	a) Bidding for turns (NV-PA1); b) Bidding for turns (V-PA1)
67	***GS6**	*a) Hand gesture offering GS10 a turn.*	a) Granting turns (NV-PA2)
68	GS10	*a) Sometimes, it is (3+), probably student [???] So, maybe you can compare from your point of view, b) but it's quite different from your research.*	a) Making suggestions (V-PA14); b) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)
69	***GS6**	*a) Maybe you think [???]*	a) Seeking opinions (V-PA11)
70	GS10	*a) Because they actually know some components of the structure* or… (000)	a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)
71	***GS6**	***a) What do you think? b) ((Eye-contacting with the others))***	a) Passing the floor (V-PA17); **b) Passing the floor (NV-PA8)**

(Extracted from the RM course;
Discussion topic: Can second language grammar be learned through listening?
Videotaped on 30 November, 2006)

The occurrence rate of **non-verbally passing the floor (NV-PA8)** was the lowest at 0.06%. As shown in Excerpt 9, GS6 was the discussion leader in this specific session. In turn 64, GS9 bid for a turn and asked her a question to seek information about the language used as the medium of expression in her research on students' portfolio. Instead of answering GS9's question with the information sought, GS6 passed the floor non-verbally to the class. The phenomenon here can be explained by three possible factors: a) GS6 tried to get the other GSs involved by performing her duty as a discussion leader; b) GS9's question was not clear to her because GS9 was a soft speaker and she mumbled at the end of her speech, which

made it difficult for GS6 to follow what she really intended to ask; and c) GS6 lacked the linguistic resources or knowledge of content about this particular aspect of the discussion topic. As a result, GS10 bid for a turn in turn 66 and GS6 fulfilled her role as the discussion leader to grant GS10 a turn in turn 67. As the discussion flow moved onward, GS6, again, passed the discussion floor in turn 71. In contrast to turn 66, it is obvious that this time she attempted to seek more opinions from her peers. It should be noted that the only two occurrences of non-verbally passing the floor (NV-PA8) found in the ACDs data were used by GS6 in the RM course, where she was the presenter of the discussion session. This may indicate that GS6 had difficulty in talking about the topic herself and thereby offered the discussion floor to others. But the more likely reason is that the discussion topics in the RM course were more closely related the GSs' thesis research topics, and the GSs might have tended to try to get their peers to participate in the discussion in order to collect diverse opinions and suggestions.

-2. Verbally Passing the Floor (V-PA17) (0.09%)

Excerpt 10

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs
112	**L:**	*{Sharing her experience in learning tricks about using computer from her friends}* **Learning to use computer –example used to explain learning from peers…I learned a lot of tricks of operating computers... so it is a very eye-opening…**	
113	***GS6**	< *a) Nodding.*>	a) Showing understanding (NV-PA4)
114	GS2	< *a) Nodding.*>	a) Showing understanding (NV-PA4)
115	GS5	< *a) Nodding.*>	a) Showing understanding (NV-PA4)
116	GS3	< *a) Leaning to the lecturer b) ((nodding)).*>	a) Showing attention (NV-PA5); b) Showing understanding (NV-PA4)
117	***GS6**	***a) Do you have any idea or suggestion? {for all class}***	**a) Passing the floor (V-PA17)**
118	GS1	*a) Me. b) I/I've learnt a surprising amount of Thai actually, but again it's been very, it's very receptive*	a) Bidding for turns (V-PA1); b) Giving information (V-PA12);

rather than productive. But I can understand far/far more Thai, now when I sit with you and you speak Thai. I understand a great deal more than I did to begin with. I don't know why that is because I've always been surrounded by Thai ever since I've been here. *c) But I just think it's just getting used to the way that you speak. I've learnt a surprising amount of Thai. I think* the thing I've learnt most is just from listening to you talking about your experiences teaching because that's a thing I can understand is the knowledge that I've gained about the reality of the shop floor in Thailand.	c) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)

(Extracted from the FLL course;
Discussion topic: Autonomy in the classroom: peer assessment;
Videotaped on 5 January, 2007)

Only 3 instances (0.09%) of **verbally passing the floor (V-PA17)** were identified in the ACDs corpus, which was undoubtedly one of the least regularly used PAs. Interestingly, they were again used by GS6 (bear in mind that the 2 instances of non-verbally passing the floor were also found to have been solely used by her as showed in Excerpt 10. This finding may suggest that, on the one hand, GS6 performed quite well in leading the discussions in encouraging her peers' participation because it was important for the presenter to elicit more ideas, suggestions and to get more information from the group to promote a better understanding of the topic under discussion. On the other hand, it may indicate that as a discussion leader, she did not want to hold the discussion floor because sharing the floor was emphasized and her failure to answer her peers' and the lectures' questions was embarrassing in the ACDs. Therefore, it may have been a face-saving device as well as generous gesture for the discussion leader to pass the floor to the group.

Nevertheless, it is necessary to point out the fact that **non-verbally passing the floor (NV-PA8)** and **verbally passing the floor (V-PA17)** were not used by the rest of the GSs does not suggest they were not competent in leading discussions in terms of allocating turns. It should be further noted that the possible cause of the low number of occurrences of **non-verbally passing the floor (NV-PA8)** (0.06%) and **verbally passing the floor (V-PA17)** (0.09%) may be attributed to the unique turn-taking norm which was basically self-selection with the occasional intervention of the lecturers or discussion leaders in the ACDs in this study. In fact, the floor in the ACDs was fundamentally open to all who want to speak out. As a result, GSs were expected to actively and spontaneously take turns and jointly keep the discussion channel open. The turn takings were basically self-selected rather than being allocated evenly among the group by the lecturers or the discussion leaders.

-3. Showing Incomprehension (NV-PA7) (0.24%)

Excerpt 11

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs
1	GS1	*a) What/what kind of learner training did he actually receive for/for the use of the self-access centre?* (000)	a) Seeking information (V-PA11)
2	GS5	***< a) Frowning.>***	**a) Showing incomprehension (NV-PA7)**
3	GS2	***a) ((Shaking her head and leaning to GS1))*** *b) "Again"?*	**a) Showing incomprehension (NV-PA7);** b) Showing incomprehension (V-PA7)

(Extracted from the Seminar course; Discussion topic: Learning training enhances understanding of SALL: a reflection of a student; Videotaped on 28 November, 2006)

Excerpt 11 shows that GS5 and GS2 were confused about the question raised by GS1 in turn 1. As a result, the two of them showed their incomprehension in turn 2 and 3 respectively. Probably, the incomprehension was caused by GS1. As a native speaker, his speech might have been too fast or perhaps his question itself might have been ambiguous. After several turns of the exchange, finally GS1 reformulated his question. **Showing incomprehension (NV-PA7)** occurred in the ACDs data only eight times accounting for 0.24%, which indicates that the GSs did not have much difficulty in understanding one another and they were generally competent in following the discussion topics.

-4. Directing the Discussion Flow (V-PA16) (0.36%)

Excerpt 12

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs
82	GS3:	***a) How long that will take? One semester or***…?	a) Seeking information (V-PA11)
83	***GS8**	***a)*** *Er (3+)* ***no, in my course Er I plan to teach in ESP process, but in/in the class for reading, writing, maybe other teacher's responsibl***e for speaking class about this material, or maybe the last part of the semester. ***All class watching Blew ((nodding)).***	a) Giving information (V-PA12)
84	GS7	***a) Can we come back to the speaking test?*** b*) And, I used to have problems when I gave speaking test, like the students who take the test first, they don't know what the teacher* will/will ask them, but when they finish, another student who come to ask them what kind of questions the teacher asked and then they prepare, so although they prepared a lot of questions but still unsuccessful. *c) Because if we used too many types of questions in the tests, it means the test will be difficult, I think it is probably difficult. {All class watching GS7}*	**a) Directing the discussion flow (V-PA16);** b) Giving information (V-PA12); c) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)
85	***GS8**	*< a)Yeah.>*	a) Showing agreement (V-PA3)
86	***GS8**	*a) Thank you for (3+) your information that you give me; I will think them for my research plan.*	a) Acknowledging (V-PA15)

87	GS2	*a) ((Raising her hand))* ***b) And, may I ask you about the assignment?*** *c) If you use the same topic, but let them speak for some periods, they will get different results.* Not only speak with their teachers, the learners will be assigned to speak with their friends too, but when they speak with their friends, th*ey will get different ide*as, *d) you will give them more articles or not?*	a) Bidding for turns (NV-PA1); **b) Directing the discussion flow (V-PA16);** **c)** Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1) d) Seeking information (V-PA11)

(Extracted from the RM course;
Discussion topic: Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language;
Videotaped on 4 December, 2006)

As is apparent, there was an information exchange between GS3 and GS8 in turns 82 and 83 concerning the length of GS8's research. However, instead of staying with the on-going aspect of the discussion topic, GS7 stepped into the discussion floor by redirecting the discussion flow to a certain aspect regarding speaking tests which were previously mentioned in GS8's presentation. Similarly, in turn 87, GS2 took the discussion floor by introducing another aspect related to student assignments which had also been talked about by GS8 in her presentation. It can be seen from Excerpt 12 that it was not the presenter or the lecturers who exclusively enjoyed the privilege of directing the discussion flow. In other words, GSs may have felt free to exercise equal rights to make their contributions and thereby to collaboratively keep the discussion channel open. Meanwhile, another possible reason is that it might have been the most efficient or convenient way of stepping into the discussion pool by introducing a certain aspect of the discussion topic by oneself rather than dwelling on other-initiated topics. Although sometimes a return to a previously raised an unclear topic was also possible, the fact that there were only eight instances (0.24%) of **verbally directing the discussion flow (V-PA16)** identified in the ACDs corpus suggests that the discussions were largely conducted in relation to the aspects initiated in the discussion topics.

Therefore, based on the findings of the types and the extent of PAs used, it may be safe to draw the following conclusions: a) the GSs actively participated in the ACDs non-verbally and verbally. Such a conclusion is out of tune with the stereotyped concept held by earlier researchers (e.g. Tsui, 1996; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Liu & littlewood 1997; Cheng, 2000) that Asian students are reticent, passive or reluctant to work in group tasks in classroom speaking activities; b) the discussion climate was favorable and supportive due to the GSs' interests in the discussion topics, the lecturer's and their peers' expectation as well as their academic development gained through ACDs sessions; and c) the GSs were fundamentally competent in following the discussion topics and handling the discussion flow.

4.1.4 The Most and the Least Frequently Used CSs

As far as the actually used CSs are concerned, on the basis of the rank list in Table 4.2, the three most-frequently-used and least-frequently-used CSs were singled out for discussion as they may represent a unique picture of the CSs used by the GSs in the ACDs. First and foremost, attention should be directed to some interactive relationships among the three most and least frequently used CSs. As for the three most frequently used CSs, the possible reason of the highest percentage of **time-gaining strategies** (20.52%) can be attributed to the fact that once the GSs took the discussion floor, most of them tried their best to stay in control of the floor and demonstrate their participation and contribution to a great extent. The findings here are contradictory with Wannaruk's (2003) results of CSs used by Thai students majoring in science and technology. In that study, most of the students used pausing to think about what they could say next or would keep quiet without using fillers or gambits such as "er…, well…, like…" in order to keep the conversation running. On the contrary, the GSs in the present study were competent in using various types of pause fillers and gambits to gain time to think and maintain the discussion flow on their own. Thus, if we consider the GSs' efforts to maintain their occupation of the

floor by all means including strategically replacing the initiated message halfway with a new message or reformulating their initial messages for a prolonged occupation of the floor, this may explain **message abandonment** (13.51%) which ranks as the second and s**elf-reformulating** (13.25%) as the third most used CS.

As to the low occurrences of the three least frequently used CSs, namely, **verbal appeal for assistance (V-CS11)** (0.26%), **verbal message reduction (V-CS2)** (0.78%) and **non-verbally appealing for assistance (NV-CS3)** (1.30%), these findings may suggest that the GSs were competent enough to bridge communication gaps and meet the communication needs at both the linguistic and the knowledge-of-subject levels without resorting to external assistance or reducing their intended messages. In the following section, some typical instances of the three most-frequently-used and three least-frequently-used CSs are illustrated and discussed. At this stage, both PAs and CSs are identified in the following excerpts to allow a clear understanding of the situations where CSs came into play when communication breakdowns occurred or communication effectiveness was called for. In each excerpt, the CSs selected for specific consideration and discussion are underlined and labeled numerically 1), 2), 3) etc. due to the possibility that more than one CS may occur in one turn.

4.1.4.1 Three Most Frequently Used CSs

+1. Time-gaining Strategies (V-CS5) (20.52%)

Excerpt 13

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs	CSs
40	GS11	*a) We should feel threatened, it is threatening.* (1) *I mean for traditional we just prepare for the lesson and {but} for autonomous learning we should be prepared to accept or receive questions we cannot predict. That's, this will be more demanding.* (***)	a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)	(1) Self-reformulating (V-CS3)
41	GS9	*a) So* **(1) *Er (3+),* b) I think, I feel that** *Er, teachers themselves they were not trained to be autonomous before at* least apart from some teachers because Er, (2) *they have to be trained, I mean so that they/they know how to/how to teach or how to help students be autonomous.* **(3) *Er (3+) I mean some teachers are not teachers.***	a) Bidding for turns (V-PA1); b) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)	**(1) Time-gaining strategies(V-CS5);** (2) Self-reformulating (V-CS3); **(3) Time-gaining strategies (V-CS5)**

(Extracted from the Seminar course;
Discussion topic: Helping self-access centre users to become autonomous learners;
Videotaped on 28 November, 2006)

It can be seen from Excerpt 13 that upon taking her turn in the discussion in turn 41, following GS11 expressing her opinions in turn 40, GS9 were not fully confident in putting forward her ideas promptly. As a result, she tried to bridge the communication gaps by simply saying "Er" and taking noticeable pauses in order to hold the floor to finish expressing her opinions. The possible reason for **time-gaining strategies (V-CS5)** (20.52%) to have the highest rate of use may be due to the fact that in the ACDs, once a GS took or was offered the discussion floor, s/he would try to maintain the discussion floor and keep the discussion running as effectively as possible in order to get his/her message across or make more contributions to the discussion pool. At this point, **time-gaining strategies (V-CS5),** such as fillers, gambits or short pauses may be prioritized by the GSs to hold the discussion floor.

+2. Message Abandonment (V-CS1) (13.51%)

Excerpt 14

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs	CSs
31	GS1	*a) What is the total length of time (xxx) what is the total length?*	a) Seeking information (V-PA11)	
32	***GS5**	*a) You know* **(1)…** *b)* (2) *Total times?*	a) Giving information (V-PA12); b) Showing incomprehension (V-PA7)	**(1) Message abandonment (V-CS1)** (2) Confirmation checks (V-CS8)
33	GS1:	a) Yeah.	a) Giving information (V-PA12)	
34	*GS5:	a) 11 weeks	a) Giving information (V-PA12)	

(Extracted from the RM course;
Discussion topic: The effect of role-play on students' self-confidence in using English for communication;
Videotaped on 3 January, 2007)

At first glance, the occurrences of **verbal message abandonment (V-CS1)** as the second most frequently used CS (13.51%) seems surprising because the GSs who were the subjects in the study were a group of MA candidates and they were defined as advanced learners in this study. However, it should be borne in mind that the ACDs were information-based and the GSs' were encouraged to participate in the ACDs actively by focusing on the academic information which they were contributing rather than the correctness of their language use or the appropriateness of their ideas. As a result, the GSs may have felt free to put forward their ideas in spite of any potential difficulties in delivering their messages even at the time when they were not fully prepared. The most plausible explanation may have been the heated competition for turns among the GSs in the ACDs, which represented an incentive for a speaker to cut short or entirely give up his/her floor when communication breakdowns occurred. This point is clearly reflected in Excerpt 14, which illustrates that in turn 32, GS5 tried to give information about the *"total length of time"* sought

by GS1 in turn 31. Nevertheless, immediately after she started to talk, it seemed she realized that the message in GS1's question was not clear to her. Consequently, she abandoned the message she had initiated halfway through and turned to GS1 for confirmation of his question. After GS1 gave her information by confirming that his question was about the total length of time in turn 33, GS5 simply answered GS1's question in turn 34 by saying "11 weeks" without continuing her message initiated in turn 32. Her message abandonment may have been due to her lack of either linguistic level or content-based knowledge resulting in her uncertainty about answering the question raised by GS1. Nonetheless, it has to be emphasized here that message abandonment caused by turn competition at the point of turns overlapping were counted as the emergence of the turn of another GS rather than an instance of a CS in this study.

+3. Self-reformulating (V-CS3) (13.25%)

Excerpt 15

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs	CSs
34	GS5	*a) In my own experience I know my/my pronunciation is not very/very good, it is quite bad, but even I know, but I still cannot improve* when I try (1) *((Hand gesture stressing "try"))* to speak because I keep concentrated on the communicate, to communicate more than pronunciation.	a) Giving information (V-PA12)	(1) Achievement strategies (NV-CS2)
35	GS10	***a) But sometimes, If you want to, if you speak consciously, also they can assess themselves. (1) I mean everyone can know the mistakes,*** and also they can assess themselves, they have to {be}conscious (xxx)	a) Disagreeing/contradicting others' opinions (VPA10.4)	**(1) Self-reformulating (V-CS3)**

(Extracted from the FLL course;
Discussion topic: Autonomy in the classroom: peer assessment;
Videotaped on 5 January, 2007)

In Excerpt 15, GS10 tried immediately to reformulate her message in order to express herself clearly by using "I mean…" after she realized that her initial message may have not been clear. Instances of this type were found on a regular basis across the ACDs data. Hence, the likely reasons could be, for one thing that the GSs often made great efforts to get their messages across. Another factor was that the GSs were competent enough to get their messages across through their own efforts by doing self-reformulation, which signified that the GSs were generally capable of making their messages understandable to the rest of the group within their own linguistic repertoire and knowledge of the subject discussed in the ACDs.

4.1.4.2 Three Least frequently Used CSs

-1. Verbally Appealing for Assistance (V-CS11) (0.26%)

Excerpt 16

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs	CSs
69	***GS8**	*a) Approach?*	a) Showing incomprehension (V-PA7)	
70	GS1	*a)Yeah, to teaching.*	a) Giving information (V-PA12)	
71	***GS8**	*a) Teaching approach, Um, I/I have to design my material that may help them to speak more, so maybe in* the material maybe I provide situations about something, or grammar in speaking (laugh) like **GS5** (xxx), **b)** (1) ***I don't know, let's ask GS1*** (***) (xxx) (***)	a) Giving information (V-PA12); b) Showing uncertainty (V-PA8)	(1) **Appealing for assistance (V-CS11)**
72	GS1	*a) I just thought maybe you might have the answer (xxx)*	a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)	

(Extracted from the Seminar course;
Discussion topic: Learning training enhances understanding of SALL: a reflection of a student;
Videotaped on 28 November, 2006)

-3. Non-verbally Appealing for Assistance (NV-CS3) (1.30%)

Excerpt 17

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs	CSs
6	GS2	*a) ((Leaning forward and raising her hand for a turn)) b) I think we should give some trainings for teachers about self-assessment because I think the self-access centre can b*e the teacher assessment? Assess teacher? Teacher/teachers assessment (1) ***((Looking at GS5 for assistance))*****,** (2) *I mean to be a very good teacher in teaching/in teaching language?*	a) Bidding for turns (NV-PA1); b) Making suggestions (V-PA14)	(1) **Appeal for assistance (NV-CS3);** (2) Self-reformulating (V-CS3)
7	GS5	*< a) ((Nodding)) b) Yes, right>*	a) Showing agreement (NV-PA3); b) Showing agreement (V-PA3)	
8	***GS11**	*a) In teaching?*	a) Seeking information (V-PA10)	
9	GS2	*a) Yes.*	a) Giving information (V-PA11)	
10	***** **GS11**	*a) Here I mean here* (1) *I/ I put two groups, one Er is a traditional teacher who is responsible for foundational English*, and two worked actually as counselor and *b) how to combine these roles together****?*** **(2) *((looking at GS1))***	a) Giving information (V-PA12); b) Seeking information (V-PA10)	(1) Message reduction (V-CS2); **(2) Appeal for assistance (NV-CS3)**
11	GS1:	*a) I don't know that. b) We should be able to combine them together. Do we really need to combine them?* (1) *I mean is it, isn't it the purpose of self access learning to provide the learner with something that's outside of the classroom. If we start trying to see self access as being an adjunct to the classroom, we're, we're reducing its value*. *c) I mean I/I come from a teaching background which is no-institutional, where everyone is learning voluntarily and there's no doubt in my mind* that the best students are those who came because they	a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1); c) Giving information (V-PA12);	(1) Self-elaborating (V-CS4)

wanted to and were doing it as part of a range of activities which they were doing to improve their English. *d) The problem here I think is that so many people who are being forced into the self access centre are only doing it because they have to, because they need that credit. And therefore we're kind of judging the fact that they're maybe not doing it willingly on the basis of people who probably wouldn't do English anyway unless they had to do it (indistinct). But I think* if we look at self access as being a facility for *people who genuinely want to learn a language and who use it,* (2) *like Dao's girl, coming for (xxx) e) it's better to surf, it's better to come and learn English than surf the Internet, and that's great because she's made a decision about learning English. She might not be doing it for all the right reasons, but the fact is that she's doing it voluntarily.*	d) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1); e) Making suggestions (V-PA14)	(2) Self-elaborating (V-CS4)

(Extracted from the Seminar course;
Discussion topic: The lecturer' attitudes towards their role as counselor in SALL: a case study;
Videotaped on 28 November, 2006)

It should be pointed out here that the present researcher violated the rank list of the CSs at this phase with the purpose of making better sense of verbal and non-verbal appeals for assistance under a single heading. In turn 71 of Excerpt 16, after explicitly showing uncertainty about a certain aspect of the discussion on whether or not grammar can be taught through speaking, GS8 verbally turned to GS1, who was a native speaker, for help. In turn 10 of Excerpt 17, when GS11 realized her lack of content knowledge on the integrated roles of language teachers, she made eye-contact with GS1 for his assistance. It is notable that since GS1 was a native speaker and well-versed in the subject matter, his peer GSs mostly tended to seek assistance from him in the ACDs. However, this did not suggest that the lecturers no longer enjoyed an authority of greater the knowledge in discussions. In essence, as the

GSs were aware that they were privileged and expected to speak and to negotiate jointly to construct their academic knowledge, they made their great efforts to negotiate meaning among themselves with the lecturers acting as discussion facilitators.

It is noteworthy that both **verbally appealing for assistance (V-CS11)** (0.26%) and **non-verbally appealing for assistance (NV-CS3)** (1.30%) were among the least frequently used CSs. The most plausible explanations might be twofold: a) as a group of second-year MA candidates, their accumulated knowledge on language and subject matter was sufficient to carry their messages across in the ACDs; and b) appeals for assistance, especially verbally seeking help may have been face-threatening because it signaled an inadequate comprehension or incapability of handling a topic under discussion.

Taking these possible factors into account, the reason behind the low occurrences of verbal and non-verbal appeals for assistance becomes understandable in this study.

-2. Message Reduction (V-CS2) (0.78%)

Excerpt 18

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs	CSs
10	*** GS11**	*a) Here I mean here* (1) ***I/ I put two groups, one Er is a traditional teacher who is responsible for foundational English***, and two worked actually as counselor and *b) how to combine these roles together?* (2) *((looking at GS1))*	a) Giving information (V-PA12); b) Seeking information (V-PA10)	**(1) Message reduction (V-CS2);** (2) Appealing for assistance (NV-CS3)

(Extracted from Seminar course;
Discussion topic: The lecturers' attitudes towards their role as counselor in SALL: a case study;
Videotaped on 28 November, 2006)

Excerpt 17 previously shown serves as a broader context for Excerpt 18. The topic of excerpt 18 was "the lecturers' attitude towards their role as counselor" in autonomous learning. From Excerpt 17, it is apparent that the intended message in GS2's question in turn 6 was about "teacher assessment", which was regarded by GS11, the discussion leader, as only loosely relevant to the general discussion topic. In order to stay on her proposed topic about the teacher's role and attitudes, in turn 10 of Excerpts 17 and 18, GS11 attempted to pull back the discussion flow, which she perceived as being off-track, by reducing GS2's message to the topic under discussion. After she confirmed with GS2 that the question raised by GS2 was about teaching assessment, she left out the initiated topic because of its irrelevance to the general topic of her discussion session. Yet, the fact that there were only three instances of this type of PA strongly suggests that the GSs rarely resorted to message reduction. This may be attributed to their relatively sound experience in academic discussions from the first semester and the expansion of their subject knowledge over time.

In brief, it may be rational to conclude that the GSs mostly attempted to tackle communication breakdowns and enhance the effectiveness of their message delivery by resorting to different types of CSs in the ACDs. One should be aware that the CSs were subcategorized into individual and interactional strategies in the CSs taxonomy. Viewed from this perspective, the four types of interactional achievement CSs such as **non-verbal appeal for assistance (NV-CS3), confirmation checks (V-CS8), clarification requests (V-CS10)** and **verbal appeal for assistance (VCS-11)** were found to have been less popularly used than the remaining eight individual CSs in the ACDs. This indicates that CSs were used largely to keep the discussion channel open with individual efforts to achieve their communicative goals in the information-based ACDs.

4.1.5 Variations of PAs and CSs Used in the ACDs

After the typical PAs and CSs used in the ACDs were identified, it is worthwhile to investigate where there were variations in the mean number of PAs and CSs used in the ACDs. It should be pointed out that the exploration at this stage was simply to establish the variation of the types of PAs and CSs used by the 11 GSs as a group rather than conducting a comparison among individual GSs. It is possible that there may or may not have been individual preferences in choosing different types of PAs and CS in the ACDs, but this is beyond the scope of the present study.

ANOVA analyses were conducted to establish whether there were variations in the use of PAs and CSs in the ACDs. The results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 respectively.

ANOVA results show that there were significant differences in the use of PAs and CSs in the ACDs at the 0.05 level (p-value=0.000). The findings suggest that PAs and CSs were used irregularly in the ACDs.

Table 4.3: ANOVA Analysis on the PAs Used by the 11 GSs in the ACDs

SUMMARY				
Group	Count	Sum	Average	Variance
NV-PA1	11	81	7.4	82.5
NV-PA2	11	17	1.5	4.1
NV-PA3	11	144	13.1	244.7
NV-PA4	11	148	13.5	150.5
NV-PA5	11	798	72.5	1094.1
NV-PA7	11	8	0.7	2.4
NV-PA8	11	2	0.2	0.4
V-PA1	11	70	6.4	24.7
V-PA2	11	13	1.2	2.0
V-PA3	11	87	7.9	68.3
V-PA4	11	74	6.7	28.8
V-PA5	11	950	86.4	8.5
V-PA7	11	40	3.6	11.9

V-PA8	11	12	1.1	3.1
V-PA9	11	34	3.1	9.7
V-PA10.1	11	254	23.1	621.3
V-PA10.2	11	12	1.1	3.1
V-PA10.3	11	12	1.1	1.1
V-PA10.4	11	35	3.2	18.6
V-PA11	11	165	15.0	85.4
V-PA12	11	293	26.6	405.5
V-PA13	11	15	1.4	5.9
V-PA14	11	34	3.1	16.9
V-PA15	11	16	1.5	4.5
V-PA16	11	8	0.7	0.4
V-PA17	11	3	0.3	0.8

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	124133.9	25	4965.355	44.537	0.000	1.548
Within Groups	28987.1	260	111.489			
Total	153120.97	285				

Table 4.4: ANOVA Analysis on the CSs Used by the 11 GSs in the ACDs

SUMMARY

Group	Count	Sum	Average	Variance
NV-CS2	11	48	4.4	18.5
NV-CS3	11	5	0.5	0.5
V-CS1	11	52	4.7	19.4
V-CS2	11	3	0.3	0.4
V-CS3	11	51	4.6	22.1
V-CS4	11	44	4.0	77.8
V-CS5	11	79	7.2	19.0
VCS6	11	30	2.7	23.2
V-CS7	11	13	1.2	1.6
V-CS8	11	45	4.1	13.7
V-CS10	11	14	1.3	1.8
V-CS11	11	1	0.1	0.1

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	614.4	11	55.859	3.386	0.000	1.869
Within Groups	1979.6	120	16.497			
Total	2594.1	131				

The plausible interpretation for the significant differences in PAs and CSs used by the GSs in the ACDs may be attributed to the different levels of the GSs' proficiency in English and academic capacity. The GSs' demographic information (discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.3) showed that the 11 GSs were different in terms of mother tongue, learning and working experience, etc. It is important to bear in mind that GS1 was a native speaker, five GSs have been exposed to foreign language speaking context, ten of them used to be English teachers at different educational levels with different time spans, and four were not English majors. All these factors might have led to the variations in the use of the PAs and CSs in the ACDs.

4.1.6 Summary

To sum up, the overall findings reveal that diverse types of PAs and CSs were used by the 11 GSs in the ACDs with various PAs and CSs being used most and least frequently. Further, a much greater number of PAs than CSs was found in the ACDs. Significant differences were found in the use of PAs and CSs in the ACDs.

It is noteworthy that CSs in the present study were defined as being used only when a GS could not get his/her message across once s/he had performed a PA because of the linguistic inadequacy or a lack of knowledge on the topic under discussion. In other words, CSs would be unnecessary if one could successfully convey one's messages in one go. Thus, the relatively small number of CSs used in the ACDs in this study means that the GSs were basically competent in performing

their PAs successfully without resorting to many CSs. Furthermore, the types of PAs and CSs, particularly the most and least frequently used ones, were unique to the ACDs of the current study. In the ACDs, the GSs had to show attention, give information and express opinions and while doing so, used time-gaining strategies to retain the turns assumed, abandoned the message if not capable of expressing it, or reformulated it in order to stay in the discussion. They tended not to pass the floor to others if it was not necessary. When they had to show their incomprehension at any stage, they usually repaired that by redirecting the discussion flow which may have given them more information to carry on with the discussion on the previous route or to open up a new channel for them to proceed. By doing this, on the occurrence of any problems in communication, the most likely strategies used by the GSs were individual strategies and hence they rarely used interactional strategies.

As a result, the following conclusions can be drawn: a) PAs and CSs used by the GSs in contributing to the discussion pool were of diverse types and were usedto different degrees; b) GSs were on the whole active and competent in handling the discussion topics and in getting their messages across as well as in dealing with communication breakdowns or making their messages more effective; c) the high rates of using PAs such as v**erbally showing attention (V-PA5)** (28.57%), **non-verbally showing attention (NV-PA5)** (24.00%), **verbally giving information (V-PA12)** (8.81%) and **expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)** (7.64%) to show involvement, to contribute to their already known information to the discussion pool and to share opinions reflected that the GSs were not critical in responding to one another in the ACDs; and d) the overwhelming use of individual CSs like **verbal time-gaining strategies (V-CS5)** (20.52%), **verbal message abandonment (V-CS1)** (13.51%) and **verbal self-reformulating (V-CS3)** (13.25 %) indicated that the GSs were not interactive when bridging communication gaps. At the same time, in view of the predominance of verbal time-gaining strategies (V-CS5) and verbal message abandonment (V-CS1), extension of the initiated discussion topics became impossible

in the ACDs because other types of CSs were cut short. This serves to underline the phenomenon of a smaller number of CSs than PAs being used in the ACDs.

For the variations in the PAs and CSs used in the ACDs, it can be explained by the GSs' linguistic repertoire, command of subject knowledge, educational and professional experience.

4.2 Research Question 2: Were there typical types of PAs and CSs used across the three courses? If so, what were they?

For a clear view of the PAs and CSs actually used, the two unused types of PAs: **non-verbally showing disagreement (NV-PA6)** and **verbally showing disagreement (V-PA6)** and the two unused types of CSs: **reduction strategies (NV-CS1)** and c**omprehension checks (V-CS9)** were discarded in the following data analysis. For a comparative view of PAs and CSs used across the three courses, the frequencies of PAs and CSs used in each course were summarized and weighted against their total occurrences in the ACDs. Table 4.5 and Table 4.7 present the detailed statistical findings of the PAs and CSs used across the three courses respectively. Moreover, Figure 4.3 and Figure 4.4 illustrate a comparative view of the PAs and CSs used across the three courses. Furthermore, Table 4.6 and Table 4.8 show the results of ANOVA analyses which were conducted to verify the typical types of PAs and CSs showed in the statistical tables and visual figures. Since some PAs and CSs were used commonly across the three courses and others were used uniquely in a certain course, the typical types of PAs and CSs were interpreted by referring to the specific context of each course in the following sections.

4.2.1 Typical PAs Used across the Three Courses

To explore the typical PAs used across the three courses, statistical results of frequencies and percentages of each PA in each course are summarized in Table 4.5. Additional, Figure 4.3 provides a visual representation of the use of PAs across the three courses. Moreover, an ANOVA was conducted to test whether there were differences in the mean numbers of the types of PAs used across the three courses. The respective results of the ANOVA analysis on PAs used across the three courses are presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.5: Summary of the PAs Used across the Three Courses

Types of PAs		Seminar		RM		FLL		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Non-verbal PAs	NV-PA1	35	1.05%	28	0.84%	18	0.54%	81	2.44%
	NV-PA2	9	0.27%	7	0.21%	1	0.03%	17	0.51%
	NV-PA3	62	1.86%	19	0.57%	63	1.89%	144	4.33%
	NV-PA4	30	0.90%	53	1.59%	65	1.95%	148	4.45%
	NV-PA5	136	4.09%	428	12.87%	234	7.04%	798	24.00%
	NV-PA7	7	0.21%	1	0.03%	0	0.00%	8	0.24%
	NV-PA8	0	0.00%	2	0.06%	0	0.00%	2	0.06%
	Sum	**279**	**8.39%**	**538**	**16.18%**	**381**	**11.46%**	**1198**	**36.03%**
Verbal PAs	V-PA1	19	0.57%	36	1.08%	15	0.45%	70	2.11%
	V-PA2	4	0.12%	7	0.21%	2	0.06%	13	0.39%
	V-PA3	24	0.72%	31	0.93%	32	0.96%	87	2.62%
	V-PA4	11	0.33%	23	0.69%	40	1.20%	74	2.23%
	V-PA5	464	13.95%	220	6.62%	266	8.00%	950	28.57%
	V-PA7	9	0.27%	28	0.84%	3	0.09%	40	1.20%
	V-PA8	6	0.18%	2	0.06%	4	0.12%	12	0.36%
	V-PA9	18	0.54%	11	0.33%	5	0.15%	34	1.02%
	V-PA10.1	103	3.10%	83	2.50%	68	2.05%	254	7.64%
	V-PA10.2	7	0.21%	2	0.06%	3	0.09%	12	0.36%
	V-PA10.3	6	0.18%	5	0.15%	1	0.03%	12	0.36%
	V-PA10.4	16	0.48%	10	0.30%	9	0.27%	35	1.05%
	V-PA11	41	1.23%	110	3.31%	14	0.42%	165	4.96%
	V-PA12	78	2.35%	157	4.72%	58	1.74%	293	8.81%
	V-PA13	4	0.12%	9	0.27%	2	0.06%	15	0.45%

	V-PA14	18	0.54%	14	0.42%	2	0.06%	34	1.02%
	V-PA15	3	0.09%	11	0.33%	2	0.06%	16	0.48%
	V-PA16	3	0.09%	4	0.12%	1	0.03%	8	0.24%
	V-PA17	0	0.00%	1	0.03%	2	0.06%	3	0.09%
	Sum	**834**	**25.08%**	**764**	**22.98%**	**529**	**15.91%**	**2127**	**63.97%**
Total		**1113**	**33.47%**	**1302**	**39.16%**	**910**	**27.37%**	**3325**	**100.00%**

Note: Please see Table 4.1 for the full names of PAs.

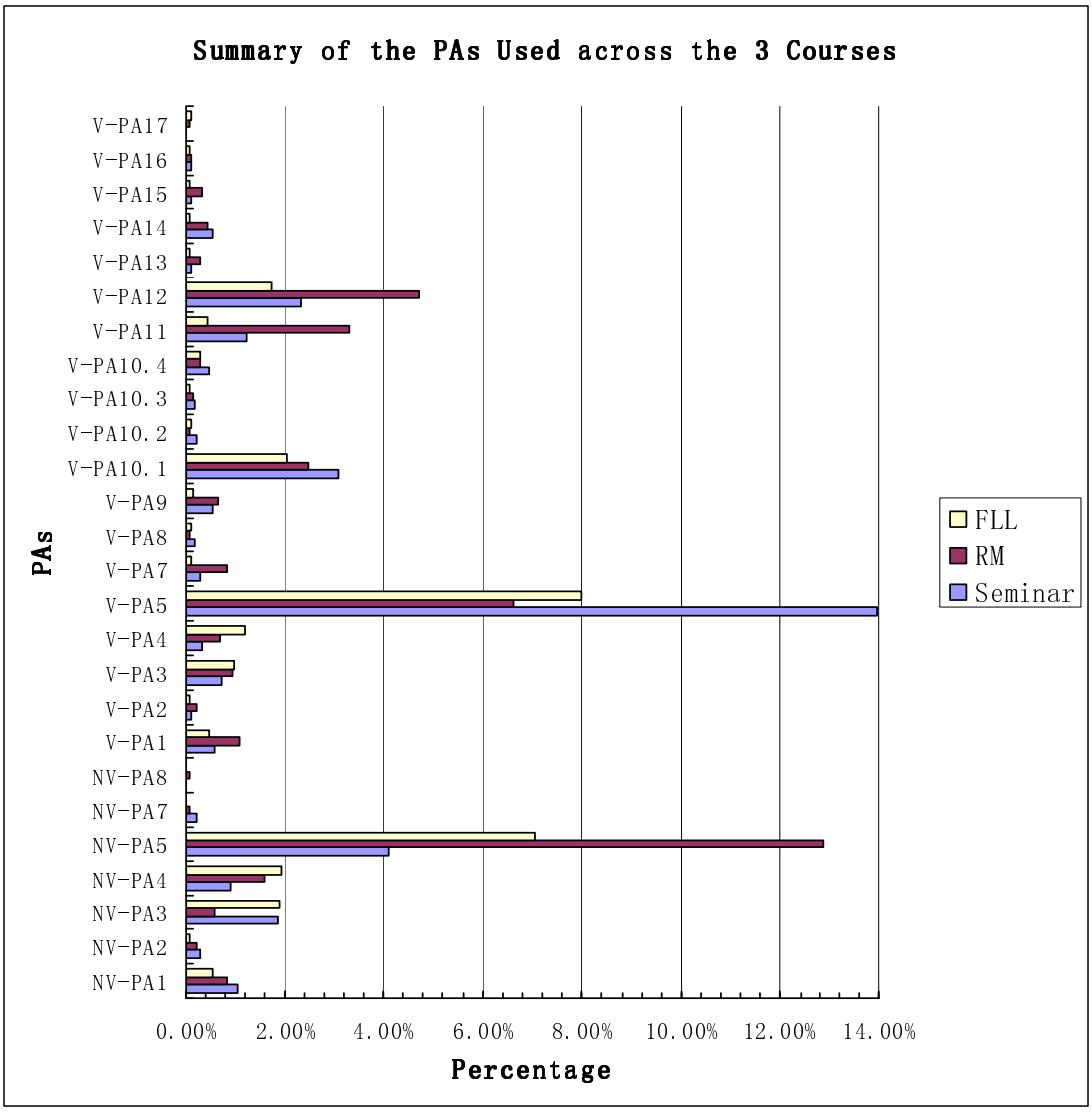

Figure 4.3: Summary of the PAs Used across the Three Courses

Note: a) please see Table 4.1 for the full names of PAs;

b) the percentage of each PA in each course is based on the percentage of the PA out of the total percentages of PAs across the three courses.

The results of the ANOVA analysis on PAs used across the three courses showed that there are no significant differences among the three courses in terms of the PAs used at the 0.05 level (p-value=0.816). The findings at this stage suggest that the use of PAs was statistically similar across the three courses.

Table 4.6: ANOVA Analysis on the PAs Used across the Three Courses

SUMMARY

Group	Count	Sum	Average	Variance
Seminar	26	1113	42.81	8513.36
RM	26	1302	50.08	8732.71
FLL	26	910	35.00	4535.04

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	2956.3	2	1478.2	0.204	0.816	3.119
Within Groups	544527.9	75	7260.4			
Total	547484.2	77				

Although the quantitative outcome of the ANOVA found no significant difference in the PAs used across the three courses, qualitatively, it is worthy to mention some salient differences from a review of Table 4.5 and Figure 4.3, which will be discussed before determining and interpreting the typical types of PAs used across the three courses.

A holistic view of Table 4.5 and Figure 4.3 reveals that the RM course had the highest percentage of PAs across the three courses (Seminar: 33.47%, RM: 39.16%, FLL: 27.37%). The finding that a higher percentage of PAs used occurred in the RM course than in the other two courses may indicate that the GSs made more contributions during the discussions in the RM course. However, the comparatively low rates of PAs in the Seminar and the FLL courses do not suggest that the GSs were not active in the discussions in these classes. Presumably, the relatively low rate of

PAs in the Seminar course may be due to the time limitation imposed on each GS presenter. As mentioned in Section 3.4, the fact that each GS had a total of only 15 minutes for presentation and discussion may have posed a constraint on the amount of time available for participation in discussion after the GS speaker had finished her/his findings. It was noticeable that during each discussion period in the Seminar course, most GSs were too time-conscious to ask more questions or talk freely although they did have more ideas to share. From a psychological point of view, the time limitation on each specific presenter might have made most GSs hold back their questions or ideas. Instead, they simply sat smiling at each other. As a result, showing incomprehension (NV-PA7) (0.21%) appeared at the highest rate in the Seminar course probably because some topics did not receive sufficient discussion. Meanwhile, the occurrences in the FLL course of the lowest percentage of PAs among the three courses can be explained with reference to the extent of the lecturer's intervention in the discussions in this course. The lecturer in the FLL course attempted to make full use of the discussion sessions to teach and share opinions with the GSs about learner-centeredness which was the main thread of the topics in her course. It was observed that the lecturer in the FLL course acted as a communicator as well as facilitator by sitting among the GSs and scaffolding the discussion flow by means of revoicing, interpreting, summarizing and so forth the GSs comments. Her involvement served to orchestrate the discussion flow to a certain extent, far more than was the case with the lecturers in the other two courses. Being viewed as a figure of knowledge authority in the eyes of most Asian students, the lecturer's interventions, which actually served as scaffolding, may have contributed to the GSs' relaxing responsibility for managing the discussion floor on their own. Nevertheless, thanks to the FLL lecturer's contribution to the discussion, the topics discussed in this course seemed to be easier to follow than those in the other two courses, which is supported by the fact that the highest percentages of both non-verbally showing understanding (NV-PA4) (1.95%) and verbally showing understanding (V-PA4) (7.04%) occurred in

the FLL course.

A closer examination of the proportion of non-verbal and verbal PAs in each course showed that non-verbal PAs occurred at a higher rate (16.18%) in the RM course than in the Seminar course (8.39%) and the FLL course (11.46%). Verbal PAs were used more frequently in the Seminar course (25.08%) compared with the slightly lower rates in the RM course (22.98%) and the much lower rate in the FLL course (15.91%). The possible causes for the differences here can be attributed to the different topic allocations in the three courses. As mentioned in Section 3.4, although the ACDs in each course were commonly preceded by the discussion leaders' presentation as the input, the topic allocations were different in each course. As far as the RM course is concerned, the follow-up discussion after the leader's presentation covered both a research article which was related to the presenter's thesis research chosen by the presenter him/herself and the presenter's thesis research plan. In that sense, the selected research articles and the proposed thesis research topics may have been quite unfamiliar to some GSs. As a result, most GSs tended to listen to different opinions or messages from the lecturer and their peers and to show their involvement non-verbally upon the occasions where they did not have anything to contribute to the discussion pool. Meanwhile, one should be fully aware that as MA candidates, the thesis research represented the academic future of the GSs. It was observed that in the ACDs, most GSs tried their best to collect as many opinions and suggestions as possible for their thesis research plan. Therefore, it is understandable that the rate of non-verbal PAs emerged as the highest in the RM course. On the other hand, the fact that verbal PAs ranked the highest in the Seminar course despite the time limitation discussed earlier can be explained by the shared knowledge of the GSs on the general topic. In the Seminar course, the general topic was launched by the course lecturers three weeks before the presentations and discussions were due to occur and the GSs were assigned to conduct a small-scale case study on which to base their presentations. For the ACDs on which this study was based the subject allocated by the lecturer

related to self-access learning. Therefore, the GSs should have obtained substantial information on the pre-launched topic and ought to have felt ready to share with one another when they went to the seminar class. Moreover, in the Seminar course, the GSs were given almost full control of managing the discussion floor because the lecturer rarely stepped into the discussion pool. As a result, the highest rate of verbal PAs can be attributed to two factors: a) the GSs may have been ready to share their collected information; and b) they may have felt obligated to participate in the discussion.

Looking in more detail at Table 4.5 and Figure 4.3, it can be seen that consistently high percentages of the following types of PAs were recorded across the three courses:

- **verbally showing attention (V-PA5)** (Seminar=13.95%; RM=6.62%; FLL=8.00%)
- **non-verbally showing attention (NV-PA5)** (Seminar=4.09%; RM=12.87%; FLL=7.04%)
- **expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)** (Seminar=3.10%; RM=2.50%; FLL=2.05%)
- **giving information (V-PA12)** (Seminar=2.35%; RM=4.72%; FLL=1.74%)
- **verbally showing agreement (V-PA3)** (Seminar=0.72%; RM=0.93%; FLL=0.96%).

On the other hand, the PAs with similarly low percentages across the three courses were:

- **verbally showing uncertainty (V-PA8)** (Seminar=0.18%; RM=0.06%; FLL=0.12%)
- **agreeing and supporting other's opinions (V-PA10.2)** (Seminar=0.21%; RM=0.06%; FLL=0.09%)
- **agreeing in part and offering alternatives (V-PA10.3)** (Seminar=0.18%; RM=0.15%; FLL=0.03%)
- **disagreeing/contradicting other's opinions (V-PA10.4)** (Seminar=0.48%; RM=0.30%; FLL=0.27%)
- **directing the discussion flow (V-PA16)** (Seminar=0.09%; RM=0.12%; FLL=0.03%).

It should be noted that **non-verbally passing the floor (NV-PA8)** was uniquely used in the RM course and **verbally passing the floor (V-PA17)** was not used in the Seminar course.

4.2.2 Typical CSs Used across the Three Courses

To explore the typical CSs used across the three courses, statistical results of frequencies and percentages of each CS in each course are summarized in Table 4.7 and Figure 4.4 presents a visual representation of the CSs used across the three courses. Since visually there were both similar and discrepant types and quantities of types of CSs recorded, an ANOVA was carried out to see whether there were differences in the mean numbers of CSs used across the three courses. The results of the ANOVA analysis on CSs used across the three courses are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.7: Summary of the CSs Used across the Three Courses

Types of CSs		Seminar		RM		FLL		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Non-verbal CSs	NV-CS2	16	4.16%	20	5.19%	12	3.12%	48	12.47%
	NV-CS3	4	1.04%	0	0.00%	1	0.26%	5	1.30%
	Sum	**20**	**5.19%**	**20**	**5.19%**	**13**	**3.38%**	**53**	**13.77%**
Verbal CSs	V-CS1	23	5.97%	18	4.68%	11	2.86%	52	13.51%
	V-CS2	1	0.26%	2	0.52%	0	0.00%	3	0.78%
	V-CS3	29	7.53%	20	5.19%	2	0.52%	51	13.25%
	V-CS4	20	5.19%	15	3.90%	9	2.34%	44	11.43%
	V-CS5	39	10.13%	32	8.31%	8	2.08%	79	20.52%
	V-CS6	14	3.64%	12	3.12%	4	1.04%	30	7.79%
	V-CS7	8	2.08%	5	1.30%	0	0.00%	13	3.38%
	V-CS8	16	4.16%	25	6.49%	4	1.04%	45	11.69%
	V-CS10	3	0.78%	9	2.34%	2	0.52%	14	3.64%
	V-CS11	0	0.00%	1	0.26%	0	0.00%	1	0.26%

	Sum	**153**	**39.74%**	**139**	**36.10%**	**40**	**10.39%**	**332**	**86.23%**
Total		**173**	**44.94%**	**159**	**41.30%**	**53**	**13.77%**	**385**	**100%**

Note: Please see Table 4.2 for the full names of CSs

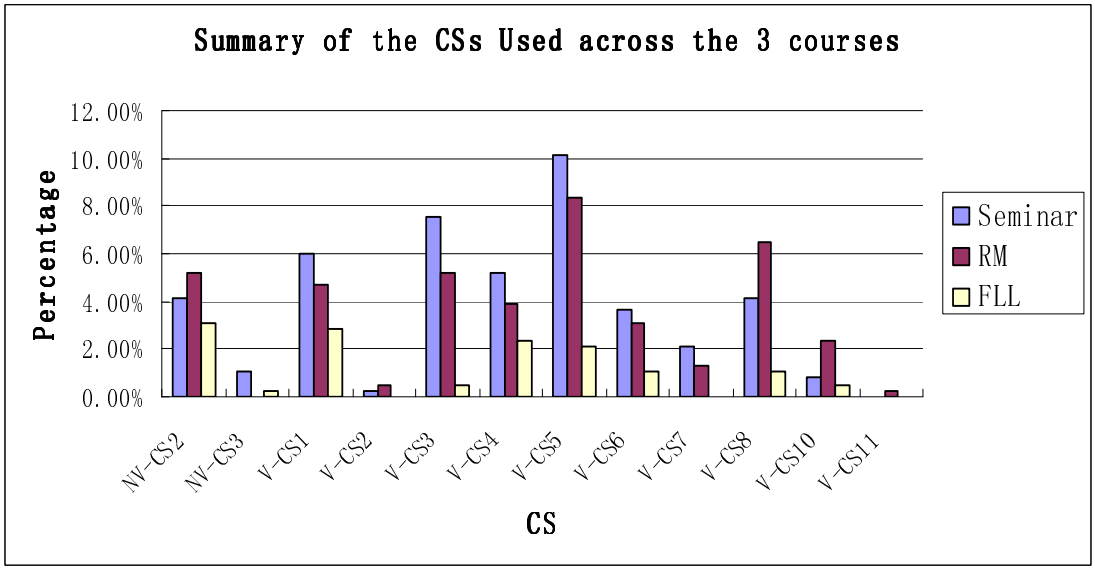

Figure 4.4: Summary of the CSs Used across the Three Courses

Note: a) please see Table 4.2 for the full names of CSs;

b) the percentage of each CS in each course is based on the percentage of the CS out of the total percentages of CSs across the three courses.

Table 4.8: ANOVA Analysis on the CSs Used across the Three Courses

SUMMARY

Group	Count	Sum	Average	Variance
Seminar	12	173	14.417	144.992
RM	12	159	13.250	104.205
FLL	12	53	4.417	19.720

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	717.6	2	358.8	4.002	0.028	3.285
Within Groups	2958.1	33	89.6			
Total	3675.6	35				

The ANOVA results in Table 4.8 reveal that there were differences in the CSs used across the three courses at the 0.05 level (p-value=0.028).

Since the outcome of the ANOVA confirmed that there was a significant difference of CSs use across the three courses, qualitatively, it was still necessary to take a detailed view of Table 4.7 and Figure 4.4 for a comprehensive interpretation of the discrepancies of CSs used across the three courses.

An overview of Table 4.7 and Figure 4.4 shows that there was a substantial gap between the highest rate of CSs in the Seminar course (44.94%) and the lowest one in the FLL course (13.77%). The rate of use of CSs in the RM course (41.30%) was much closer to that in the Seminar course than to that in the FLL course. A closer examination on the proportion of the non-verbal and verbal CSs in each course shows that non-verbal CSs were used at an identical higher rate (5.19%) in the RM and the Seminar courses than that in the FLL course (3.38%). The rate of verbal CSs was higher in the Seminar course (44.94%) compared with the slightly lower rates in the RM course (41.30%) and the much lower rate in the FLL course (13.77%). Among the types of CSs used, some appeared commonly across the three courses while others were uniquely used in a specific course.

The most plausible cause of the highest rate of CSs occurring in the Seminar course may be the time constraint for the follow-up discussion period. It is likely that, owing to some hasty initiation or some under-discussed aspects of the topics under discussion, more communication breakdowns may have arisen and more efforts demanded to enhance the effectiveness of the message transmission. Consequently, being conscious of the time pressure, more CSs may have been called upon by the GSs to deal with their communication difficulties and/or to express their messages more effectively in a limited time span. In addition to that, since the lecturer in the Seminar course almost totally relinquished the control of the discussion floor to the GSs, it was their responsibility to keep the discussion running in times of communication difficulties. Taking these factors into consideration, the highest rate of CSs use in the Seminar course becomes explicable. The closer percentage of CSs use in the RM course to that in the Seminar course can be explained by the GSs' unfamiliarity with their peer GSs' selected topics, which may have posed communication difficulties or called for more efforts to enhance the effectiveness of their message transmission in this course.

For the lowest rate of CSs in the FLL course, one possible interpretation may be that the GSs were all familiar with the text setting out the pre-assigned discussion topics which they had all had a chance to read before class. As a result, it may have been easier for the GSs to understand and be understood while talking about the materials which they had all read. Another factor may be traced to the lecturer's method of scaffolding the GSs' discussion which contributed to their better understanding of the on-going discussion topics.

A detailed look at Table 4.7 and Figure 4.4 shows a seemingly turbulent fluctuation of CSs use across the three courses. It is evident that the CSs were used with different degrees of variation across the three courses. The following CSs selected for discussion are arranged from the smallest to the greatest variation among the three courses:

- **non-verbal achievement strategies (NV-CS2)** (Seminar=4.16%; RM=5.19%; FLL=3.12%)
- **message abandonment (V-CS1)** (Seminar=5.97%; RM=4.68%; FLL=2.86%)
- **time-gaining strategies (V-CS5)** (Seminar=10.13%; RM=8.31%; FLL=2.08%)
- **clarification requests (V-CS10)** (Seminar=0.78%; RM=2.34%; FLL=0.52%)
- **confirmation checks (V-CS8)** (Seminar=4.16%; RM=6.49%; FLL=1.04%).

The only one instance of **verbally appealing for assistance (V-CS11)** was found in the RM course.

4.2.3 Regularities of PAs and Discrepancies of the CSs Used across the Three Courses

To interpret the possible factors contributing to the regularities of the occurrence of PAs and the discrepancies of the CSs used across the three courses, it is necessary to take into account the academic goal of running the ACDs by the course lecturers, the socio-cultural context where the ACDs took place, the characteristics of the discussion topics and the degree of the lecturers' orchestration in each course.

4.2.3.1 Regularities of the PAs Used across the Three Courses

To begin with, the academic expectation of the lecturers' of the three courses, all the lecturers placed high expectations on the GSs to be actively involved in the ACDs. At the time when the ACDs were videotaped, the GSs were fully aware that their participation and involvement would be both graded and valued by their lecturers as well as their peers. In addition, showing attention verbally and non-verbally might be the easiest means for the GSs to demonstrate their involvement or seeming understanding by nodding or simply uttering 'yeah/uhn' when the discussion floor was under the command of other GSs. These factors may have led to the prominently high rates of **verbally showing attention (V-PA5)** and **non-verbally**

showing attention (NV-PA5) across the three courses. Taking the information-based nature of the ACDs into consideration, it is reasonable to see that **expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)** and **giving information (V-PA12)** were used at regularly high rates across the three courses. Since the ACDs were conducted in an MA program in Thailand, showing compromise is a typical Thai socio-culture norm (Niratpattanasai, 2001), thus the findings of the commonly high percentages of **verbally showing agreement (V-PA3)** across the three courses tended to be understandable. By the same token, the low rates of **verbally showing uncertainty (V-PA8)** may be due to the face culture, particularly prevalent in Asian contexts, and it may have been face-threatening for the GSs as MA candidates to show uncertainty vocally as this may have indicated incapability of following the discussion flow because of linguistic and/or content knowledge.

It should be pointed out that, the low percentages of **agreeing and supporting other's opinions (V-PA10.2)**, **agreeing in part and offering alternatives (V-PA10.3)**, **disagreeing/contradicting other's opinions (V-PA10.4);** and **directing the discussion flow** (**V-PA16)** may be reflective of a reluctance by the GSs' to retain the floor with their own initiated topics or opinions, which may suggest that though the GSs were basically active in participating in the ACDs, they were not critical in putting forward their ideas upon the discussed topics.

Finally, it is striking to see that there were no occurrences of **non-verbally passing the floor (NV-PA8)** in either the Seminar or the FLL courses and **verbally passing the floor (V-PA17)** did not occur in the Seminar course. The findings strongly suggest that the GSs tried to retain the discussion floor in these two courses. Possibly, since the discussion topics were pre-assigned and the GSs may have been able to handle and follow the discussion topics in these two courses more easily than those in the RM course or they may have been better prepared for the discussion sessions. This may have enabled the GSs to retain the discussion floor more readily. The low occurrences of these types of PAs across the three courses

jointly indicate that the GSs were, for one thing, capable of managing the discussion floor on their own. For another, they may have profoundly valued their access to the floor and once they succeeded in taking over the floor, they made great efforts to contribute to the discussion pool as much as they could and retain the floor under their own command. Moreover, the low percentages of passing the floor both verbally and non-verbally across the three courses may be attributed to the Asian cultural context of the ACDs in which the GSs had probably been more accustomed to the lecturers' regulating classroom activities. Therefore, they may have not known how to pass the floor to others or they may not have seen it as being their responsibility but rather the lecturers' privilege to take care of the discussion flow in terms of turn allocation.

4.2.3.2 Discrepancies of the CSs Used across the Three Courses

To begin with, the slight difference in the use of **non-verbal achievement strategies (NV-CS2)** across the three courses (Seminar=4.16%; RM=5.19; FLL=3.12%) may have been due to the nature of ACDs as face-to-face communication events, in which non-verbal achievement strategies (NV-CS2) may have represented an easy option to dealing with communicative needs when other means were temporally unavailable.

Secondly, relatively slighter differences in the rate of employing **message abandonment (V-CS1)** were found between the Seminar course (5.97%) and the RM course (4.68%) with the lowest rate of 2.86% in the FLL course. The findings here indicate that, on the one hand, discussion topics in the Seminar and RM courses were more demanding than those in the FLL course, which resulted in more instances of linguistic inadequacy or lack of content knowledge as well as more need for enhancement of the effectiveness of the communication. Meanwhile, as previously

mentioned, the discussion topics in the Seminar course were observed as not being sufficiently discussed because of the time limitation for the discussion sessions. With this in mind, the higher percentage of message abandonment (V-CS1) in the Seminar course becomes reasonable. On the other hand, the lowest rate of message abandonment (V-CS1) used in the FLL course confirmed that the discussion topics were better understood because of the pre-assigned reading materials along with the greater amount of scaffolding of the discussion flow from the course lecturer than that of the lecturers in the other two courses. It is worthy of mentioning that a big proportion of message abandonment (V-CS1) across the three courses in this study was caused by the GSs' introducing new aspects of discussion topics in order to hold the discussion floor.

Thirdly, there were larger differences in the use of **self-reformulating (V-CS3)** and **time-gaining strategies (V-CS5).** As shown in Figure 4.4, both of these were used much more frequently in the Seminar (V-CS3=7.53%) and the RM courses (V-CS3=5.19%) than in the FLL course (V-CS3=0.52%). The findings seem to confirm that topic allocation, time constraint for discussion time and the lecturers' degree of orchestration had an influence on the GSs' useof CSs in certain circumstances. This point can be supported by taking the FLL course as an example. As discussed previously, both the familiarity of the discussion topics and the lecturer's optimal contribution to the discussion may have helped the GSs gain a better sense of the discussion flow. Hence, it is not surprising to see that self-reformulating (V-CS3) and time-gaining strategies (V-CS5) which were grouped into the individual achievement strategies category recorded only low percentages in the FLL course.

Fourthly, the percentages of **confirmation checks (V-CS8)** and **clarification requests (V-CS10)** were found to be highest in the RM course (V-CS8=6.49%). A credible reason for these findings can be tracked back to the characteristics of the discussion topics in the RM course, that is, the discussions in this course included two parts: content about a self-chosen research article and the thesis research plan of the discussion leader. As the discussion topics were unfamiliar to the other GSs in terms of the particular academic research areas, the GSs might have had difficulty in making sense of the topics initiated by the specific discussion leader at the same time. Therefore, it is reasonable to see why confirmation checks (V-CS8) and clarification requests (V-CS-10) were called upon most frequently in the RM course.

Fifthly, it is interesting to see that **verbally appeal for assistance (V-CS11)** appeared only in the RM course at 0.26%. The possible reason may be that, as the majority of the GSs were Asian-bred, it may be face-threatening for both listeners and speakers to seek assistance at the time of communication breakdowns because that might signal a listener's inability to understand the message or a speaker's inadequacy in expressing him/herself effectively.

4.2.4 Summary

The research question aimed to explore typical types of PAs and CSs used across the three courses. Firstly, the findings show that the total number of PAs was much greater than that of CSs. This suggests that the higher frequencies of the use of PAs do not necessarily lead to higher rates of CSs being used in the ACDs. Since the CSs came into play only if a GS couldn't perform an initiated PA successfully, it can be inferred in the current study that CSs may be used only in situations in which the GSs made great individual efforts to keep the discussion channel open. Secondly, the rates of verbal PAs and CSs were higher than those of

non-verbal PAs and CSs, which indicates that the GSs were vocally active in each course. Thirdly, it was found that there were no significant differences in the use of PAs across the three courses whereas significant differences were found in the use of CSs. In short, the findings from this phase of the study suggest that five types of PAs were used regularly, namely, **verbally showing attention (V-PA5)**, **non-verbally showing attention (NV-PA5)**, **expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1, giving information (V-PA12)** and **verbally showing agreement (V-PA3)** while CSs were used differently across the three courses.

Plausibly, it is the nature of the ACDs and academic expectation of the course lecturers and the MA program that contributed to the typicality of the five types of PAs across the three courses. On the other hand, the differences of CSs use may be due to the different topics in each course, the degree of the GSs' familiarity to the discussion materials, the different approaches of the lecturers' scaffolding and the GSs' differences in language ability and subject knowledge. Based on the identification of the fives types of typically used PAs, the finding also suggests that the GSs were generally active in showing involvement but not critical in participating in the ACDs.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter commences with a summary of the findings and discussions presented in Chapter 4. Then, attention is directed to pedagogical implications based on the findings of the study. Finally, before closing this chapter, recommendations for further research are proposed.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

Before summarizing the findings, it is necessary to restate the research questions which this study aimed to address. With the aim of exploring and describing the use of PAs and CSs by the 11 GSs in the ACDs naturally occurring in an MA program in Thailand, the present study has been guided by the following two questions:

1.2.3 What types of PAs and CSs were used by the GSs in the ACDs? To what extent were they used? Were there variations of PAs and CSs used by the GSs in the ACDs?

1.2.4 Were there typical types of PAs and CSs used across the three courses? If so, what were they?

To provide answers to the two research questions, qualitative and quantitative analyses of types and extents of PAs and CSs used in the ACDs have been undertaken with comparisons across the three courses by the 11 GSs.

In respect of the first research question, 26 types of PAs and the four most and four least frequently used PAs were identified in ACDs. The four most

frequently used PAs were: **verbally showing attention (V-PA5)** (28.57%), **non-verbally showing attention (NV-PA5)** (24.00%), **and verbally giving information (V-PA12)** (8.81%) and **expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)** (7.64%). Conversely, the four types of PAs used least frequently in this study were **non-verbally passing the floor (NV-PA8)** (0.06%), **verbally passing the floor (V-PA17)** (0.09%), **non-verbally showing incomprehension (NV-PA7)** (0.24%), and **verbally directing the discussion flow (V-PA16)** (0.24%). Meanwhile, 12 types of CSs with three most and three least frequently used CSs were located in the ACDs. The three most frequently used CSs were: **verbal time-gaining strategies (V-CS5)** (20.52%), **verbal message abandonment (V-CS1)** (13.51%) and **verbal self-reformulating (V-CS3)** (13.25 %). In contrast, the three least frequently used types of CSs in the ACDs were **verbal appeal for assistance (V-CS11)** (0.26%), **verbal message reduction (V-CS2)** (0.78%) and **non-verbal appeal for assistance (NV-CS3)** (1.30%). Overall, the types of PAs used in the ACDs were diverse and the rate of use of PAs was much higher than that of the use of CSs, which indicates that the GSs were basically active in participating in the ACDs and competent in getting across their messages or coping with communication difficulties or the needs of certain CSs. Significant differences were found in the use of PAs and CSs in the ACDs. The differences in the PAs and CSs used in the ACDs may be attributed to the GSs' linguistic repertoire, command of subject knowledge, educational and professional experience.

For the second research question, the descriptive statistics regarding frequencies and percentages of the use of PAs and CSs indicate that PAs and CSs use fluctuated to differing degrees across the three courses. Five types of PAs were used regularly, namely, **verbally showing attention (V-PA5)**; **non-verbally showing attention (NV-PA5)**; **expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)**; **giving information (V-PA12)**; and **verbally showing agreement (V-PA3)** while CSs were used differently across the three courses. Furthermore, it was established that the use

of PAs was statistically similar whereas CSs were used irregularly across the three courses

Since the findings of PAs and CSs used in this study indicate that the GSs were active in participating but not critical and interactive in the ACDs, some clear pedagogical implications can be drawn from this study.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study are relevant to teaching and learning languages in the following aspects.

Firstly, the diverse types of PAs and CSs identified in the present study suggested that the GSs were actively involved in the ACDs. This result strongly contradicts the stereotyped claim made by researchers (e.g. Tsui, 1996; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Liu & littlewood 1997; Cheng, 2000, Jackson, 2002) that many students, especially Asian students are reticent and passive in classroom activities. In this sense, it is feasible and may be more productive to organize classroom teaching at post-gradate level in the form of whole-class discussions on different academic topics in Asian context.

Secondly, from the finding that the GSs were generally active in showing involvement but not critical in participating in the ACDs based on the regularly used types of PAs to show attention, express their own opinions and gave pre-obtained information, it is recommended that language teachers should carry out overt training or awareness heightening of meaningful and effective participation skills and communication strategies in classroom activities according to the students' different levels of linguistic proficiency. In addition, although some teachers encourage students to reflect on their own experience, it may be sensible to guide them how to defend their opinions rather than simply introducing their experiences to the talking group. Since the GSs in this study were basically engaged in the ACDs by

sharing their experience and/or opinions without further extension of their initiated messages, it would be meaningful if the students could be encouraged to reason out their experience and defend or extend their opinions once they step into the discussion pool. At this point, students should be told explicitly that PAs like **verbally showing attention (V-PA5)**, **non-verbally showing attention (NV-PA5)**, **expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)**, **giving information (V-PA12)** and **verbally showing agreement (V-PA3)** are valued in the classroom discussions, but emphasis should be put on the PAs such as **verbally showing uncertainty (V-PA8)**, **agreeing and supporting other's opinions (V-PA10.2)**, **agreeing in part and offering alternatives (V-PA10.3), disagreeing/contradicting other's opinions (V-PA10.4)**, which are believed to contribute to a critical discussion atmosphere.

Thirdly, this study would be useful for the syllabus design. It would be beneficial if the participation acts and communication strategies identified in this study would be prescribed in curriculum and demonstrated in classroom teaching for language learners at different levels according to their specific needs to learn how to handle the flow of discussion and to communicate with their interlocutors meaningfully and effectively during oral activities. At this point, to be precise, it would be useful if students could be demonstrated with the functions and use of PAs such as **verbally showing uncertainty (V-PA8)**, **agreeing and supporting other's opinions (V-PA10.2)**, **agreeing in part and offering alternatives (V-PA10.3), disagreeing/contradicting other's opinions (V-PA10.4)** in participating in classroom discussions. Furthermore, the low rates of **directing the discussion flow (V-PA16)** as well as **non-verbally passing the floor (NV-PA8)** and **verbally passing the floor (V-PA17)** suggest that the students should be trained to take an active role in managing the discussion flow as long as they are entitled to retain the floor by a lecturer in a discussion. In addition, some activities may also be introduced for the teachers and their learners to practice the different types of PAs and CSs in their learning contexts. For instance, course books about participatory strategies or

conversational skills for students to get oriented to tertiary or above academic courses like seminars. It should be noted that accommodations for adaptation should be provided by taking into account the needs of target groups, the facilities of the learning context and the practicality of certain activities, and so forth. In addition, participatory strategies or conversational skills can be also beneficial for the learners in primary or secondary educational communities in terms of orienting them for their future academic development. Moreover, although the results show that the GSs as MA candidates in this study were competent in tackling communication problems and enhancing the effectiveness of communication through their individual efforts, it would be more desirable that individual achievement strategies like **self-reformulating (V-CS3)** or **self-elaborating (V-CS4)** instead of reduction strategies like **message abandonment (V-CS1)** and **time-gaining strategies (V-CS5)** be used. Further, the ACDs may be more fruitful and critical if students could use more interactional CSs like **clarification requests (V-CS10), confirmation checks (V-CS8), comprehension checks (V-CS9)** and **verbally appealing for assistance (V-CS11)** to achieve clear understanding of the initiated topics with one another rather than just managed to stay in the discussion pool to show their involvement with their own efforts in the ACDs.

Fourthly, it is recommended that these PAs and CSs can be taught or learned from the transcripts of discussion tasks. Lynch (2007) suggested that the self-transcribing procedure was more effective during the recycling activities. For the advanced learners, transcripts used for leaning can be produced by the learners as discussion participants first and then cross-checked with the lecturers to highlight the meaningful and effective types of PAs and CSs. In doing so, the learners can also make good sense of their use of certain PAs and CSs during discussion tasks.

Fifthly, Kumpulainen and Mika (2007) suggested that different participation modes would probably facilitate critical examination and possible refinement of existing interactional and pedagogical practices. Therefore, students could be demonstrated explicitly that they can take on different roles and exert different influence during classroom discussions. They can be Vocal Participants--to take an authoritative role by initiating and responding to evidence negotiations as well as providing feedback to others. They can be Responsive Participants--to engage in discussions by responding to the others' initiated topics submissively if they don't have ideas to share. They can be Bilateral Participants--to contribute to the classroom interaction by responding to the teacher or one student only. They can be Silent Participants--to listen to others actively and show their involvement non-verbally. It should be pointed out the students' individual differences should be concerned and different roles can just be recommended but not assigned.

5.3 Recommendations for Further Research

Since the ACDs data were collected solely in an MA classroom in a Thai context, it is recommend that similar studies may be conducted in different domains and contexts and with different participants from diverse backgrounds and levels of ability.

The analytical frameworks and analysis method introduced in this study could be modified to for use with different levels of students in different contexts. As English was used for both teaching and communication in the ACDs and the GSs were competent in using English to converse, code-switch strategies like L1-based or L3-based strategies were not subsumed in CSs taxonomy of the present study. Therefore, the CSs taxonomy used in this study should be tailored to the future study with participants sharing same mother tongue or participants acquiring more than one foreign language.

In using the stimulated recall method, the accurate interpretation of GSs' ambiguous PAs of showing attention, showing understanding and showing agreement in the ACDs were guaranteed through the replaying of the recordings of the ACDs. In view of the usefulness of the stimulated recall method to achieve precise interpretation of data, it is suggested that further analyses utilize the participants' self-reflection through the stimulated recall method by showing the participants the whole video-recorded data along with the researcher's identification and interpretation of the data. In so doing, the participants' retrospective comments upon the researchers' understanding of the data could be collected. This would make the identification of certain participants' behavior more accurate and reliable.

Since the significant differences were found in the PAs and CSs used by the 11 GSs, it would be insightful if further study could be conducted to gather information about learners' willingness and their difficulties to participate in, and benefits they derive from discussion sessions as well as suggestions for future improvement could be incorporated to explore the benefits of classroom discussions in learners' academic development. Knowledge of these matters could provide valuable information for teachers on how to help students to be active and critical communicators.

In view that the teachability and practicality of CSs instruction has been supported by Dörnyei (1995), Bejarano, Levine, Olshtain, and Steiner (1997), Lam (2006) and Maleki's (2007), it may be interesting to investigate the teachability of PAs for learners of different levels language proficiency, different cultural and educational background.

Additionally, since the findings of this study seem to support Sbisa's (2001) assertion that non-verbal acts have illocutionary force and that non-verbal gestures also carry communicative force similar to that of language in a face-to-face conversational context, it is recommended that future studies on non-verbal gestures may also be conducted based on the three layers of communicative forces defined in

speech act theory (Austin, 1962, Searle, 1969), and it is tentatively proposed that the meanings of non-verbal gestures may be analyzed from the aspect of their **locutionary force** (the performance of a gesturer in "doing" something), **illocutionary force** (the performance of a gesture in doing something with intention to interact), and c) **perlocutionary force** (the consequential effect of 'performing' a gesturer on the listener).

With regard to the technical limitations encountered during the process of collecting data from the ACDs for this study, only one camera was positioned in the front of the classroom which led to an incomplete view of the non-verbal behavior of GS7, GS8, GS9 and GS10. In this regard, if further studies are conducted covering non-verbal behavior in natural speaking events, it is recommended that two more cameras are situated in optimal positions will be advantageous in capturing a full picture of the participants' non-verbal behavior during a speaking event.

Hopefully, the aforementioned research needs can be addressed in future studies so that teachers as well as researchers can be informed about how to conduct effective discussions. At the same time, language learners can gain an insight into what classroom discussions are like and will be familiarized with strategic skills about how, when, what, why and with whom they can converse in a classroom discussion. Nevertheless, it is believed that the current study method offers one analytical tool to investigate the learners' behavior and will hopefully inspire new research ideas in relation to collecting, analyzing and reporting data of situated classroom speaking events.

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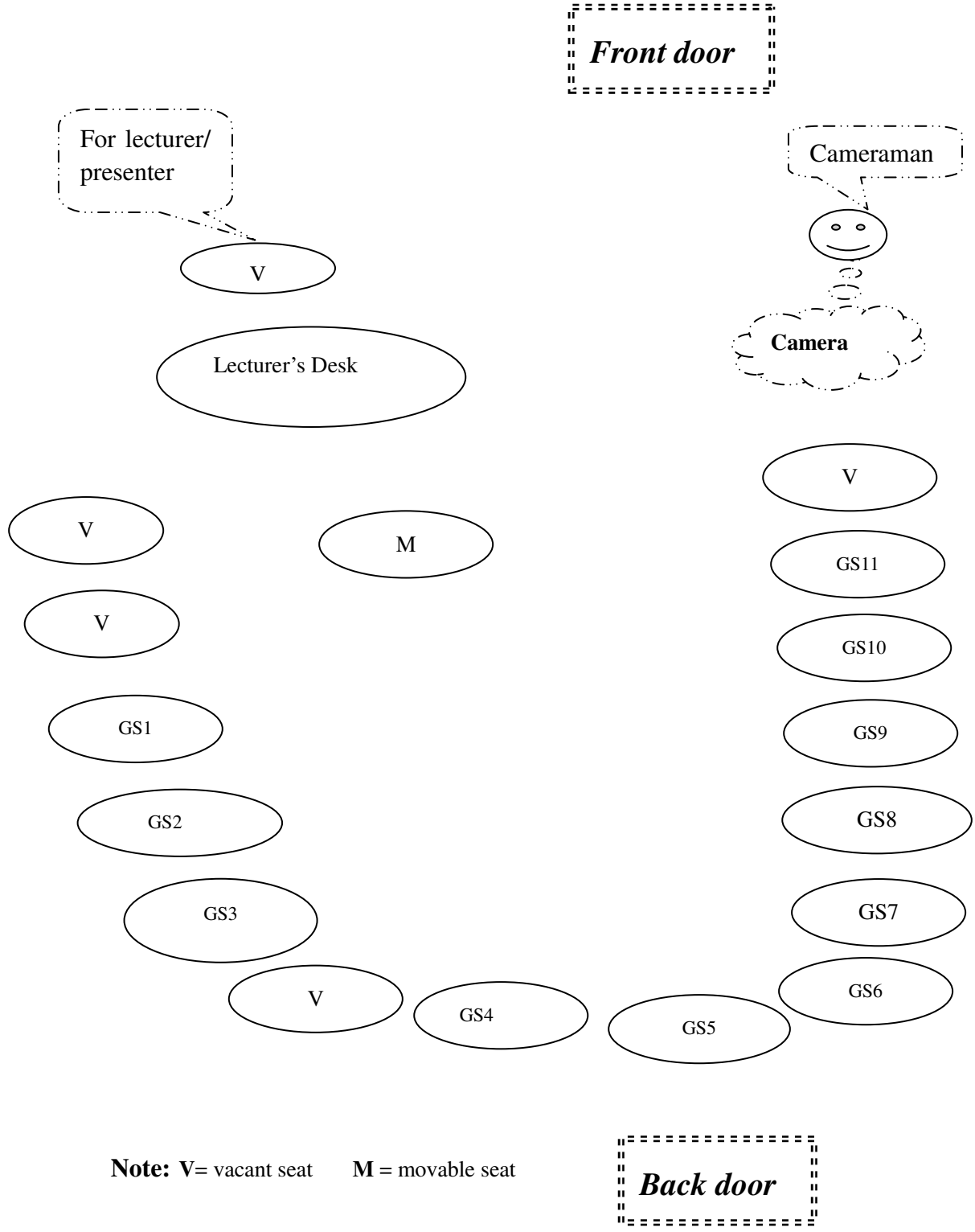
APPENDIX A

GSs' SEATING ARRANGEMENT IN THE ACDs SETTING

GSs' Seating Arrangement in the ACDs Setting



APPENDIX B

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

Transcription conventions *(ACDs data were transcribed verbatim)*

L	L stands for a ***Lecturer.***
*	An asterisk earmarks ***a presenter of a specific discussion session***.
/	A slash indicates ***overlapped utterances***.
(3+)	3+ in parentheses represents ***a pause more than 3 seconds.***.
-	A hyphen after a word or word part means ***a self-interruption or a cut-off.***
,	A comma indicates ***a pause shorter than 3 seconds, usually taken by a speaker for a breath.***
?	A questions mark indicates ***rising intonation, not necessarily a question.***
(xxx)	Three cross marks in parentheses indicate ***an inaudible utterance caused by background noise (e.g. noise generated by air-conditioner, class laughter) or drowned out by turn-competing of speakers if it appears at the end of a speaker's utterance.***
[???]	Three questions marks in a square bracket indicate ***an indistinct utterance produced by a speaker when s/he is mumbling.***
...	Three dots represent an ***unfinished utterance caused by cutting short or totally giving up one's intended messages.***
{ }	A curly bracket encloses a ***revised utterance for a better sense of the discourse (some were down by checking with the specific speakers and some were inferred and annotated by the present researcher according to the discussion context).***
<words>	Words in a pointed bracket indicates an ***inserted turn(s) occurs while a speaker is talking.***
((words))	Words in double parentheses represent the present researcher's ***description about non-verbal behavior accompanying the verbal utterances.***
(***)	Three asterisks in parentheses mean ***laughter of the whole class.***
(000)	Three zeros in parentheses mean a more-than-3-second ***silence of the whole class.***

(Adapted from: Walters, 2007; Dufficy, 2005; Seedhouse, 2004.)

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

A SAMPLE TRANSCRIPT

Course: Seminar on Problems and Issues in Language Teaching

Presenter:GS1

Topic: Helping self-access centre users to become autonomous learners

Length of time: 6`55``

*GS1: … So, over to you. (000)

1. **L1: …any ideas?**
2. GS11: Raising her pen for a turn.
3. **L1: Yes (offering GS11 a turn.)**
4. GS11: I want/I want to know, as the title of your presentation -- encouraging self access learners, and in your opinion who can help?
5. <GS5: Leaning forward to GS11.>
6. *GS1: I don't think there's any question in my/my view that the only people who can realistically help at the moment are the teachers?
7. <GS11: Nodding.>
8. GS11: How about your attitude toward the teachers? You think the teachers can help a lot of students to help themselves.
9. ***GS1:** I think/ I think it's, I think that as most/ most (3+) of the writers I've read say, this is not a short process. It's not a question of showing somebody how to do it. It's a question of changing somebody's attitude and it's not realistic to expect either the self access staff or the counsellors in the self access centre to carry out that function because they don't have the continued contact with the teachers Er, with the students. The only people who have long term contact with the students and who really can be of influence are the class teachers in my view.
10. <GS6: Leaning forward to GS1.>
11. <GS11: Watching GS1.>
12. GS11: You mentioned the/the change of attitude in the lecturers and also the students.
13. ***GS1:** Yes.
14. GS11: Who should change first?
15. ***GS1:** I, Ohaa. who should change first? I'm not sure that the teachers actually need to change. I think most of (xxx)

16. GS11: But this is my topic/this is my topic, the teachers' attitude towards their role. (***)

17. ***GS1:** Well, well, that's something we should talk about later Ohaa. I think certainly I detected in some of the teachers I talked about, a scepticisms rather than/rather than opposition and there's a feeling that it's not necessarily a bad idea but/but a doubt as to whether it's practical and whether it will work. But there are other people I spoke to who have been very positive about it, who accept their own failings in not being, not having time or perhaps the wherewithal to actually help the students to/ to take on board what's in there.

18. <GS6: Leaning forward to GS1.>

19. <GS5: Leaning forward to GS1.>

20. <GS2: Leaning forward to GS1.>

21. <GS11: Watching GS1.>

22. Uncounted GS: Er, so Er, you think except the teachers. Do you think the counsellor itself, like counselling services can help the students; I mean the users to understand what is the purpose of learning at the self access centre?

23. <GS6: Leaning forward to *the uncounted GS*.>

24. <GS4: Watching *the uncounted GS*.>

25. ***GS1:** It would be very nice if they could. The counsellors I fear are in a slightly difficult position at the moment. I mean one of the things that were said to me is that in order to have any involvement with the students; the counsellors have to act almost like teachers. They have to actually get up out of their seat and go and talk to the students. If they sit in their seat and wait for the students to come to them, they won't do it. And one of the things that are mentioned in the handout there is this question that you can't see training for self access as imposing a series of/of attitudes. You've got to get them to see the benefits of it. And if the counsellors adopt the role as effectively being teachers of the self access learning skills then they're breaching the whole principle of self-/of/of/autonomous learning because you're teaching somebody to do something which essentially is against teaching. So I think it would be impossible for the counsellors to take on that role.

26. <GS2: Watching GS1.>

27. <GS11: Watching GS1.>

28. <GS6: Leaning forward to GS1.>

29. <GS5: Leaning forward to GS1.>

30. <GS4: Leaning forward to GS1.>

31. Uncounted GS: So they should Er adopt the ideas of the roles of teachers?

32. <GS6: Leaning forward to *the uncounted GS*.>

33. ***GS1:** No, I don't think they should because I think that would breach the whole purpose of the counsellor in the self access centre which is somebody to help learners I mean users, what to do, not someone to intervene and try to direct either the learning or the attitudes of the people in the self access centre. And I mean that's as I say is very much what/what/ there's one particular quote in there from, I think Susan Sheerer who says that you can't adopt this attitude of 'we know best – we know how to do this - we are going to tell you how to do it' because that's/because that's all we're doing, is continuing to spoon-feed students with attitudes, and what we essentially want is for them to realize that this is something they can do on their own.

34. <GS3: Watching GS1.>

35. <GS6: Leaning forward to GS1.>

36. <GS11: Watching GS1 and nodding.>

37. L: (Summarising and raising 3 questions for further thinking) Right. I agree with GS1. I think he's right … Think about the role of the students themselves …

<Class members all pay attention to the lecturer.>

38. ***GS1:** ((Waving his pen to the class)) I may, I mean I just quickly ask, I think I've got about a minute left. Can I just ask people here whether they feel that teaching or training this idea of autonomy does actually threaten your role as teachers. Do you think you will find it more difficult to teach people who are, who have an autonomous mind set than our compliant students who sit there and listen to every word that we say. Is that something that you feel?

39. <GS2: Watching GS1.>

40. GS11: We should feel threatened, it is threatening. I mean for traditional we just prepare for the lesson and {but} for autonomous learning we should be prepared to accept or receive questions we cannot predict. That's, this will be more demanding.

41. GS9: So (0.3) I think, I feel that Er, teachers themselves they were not trained

to be autonomous before at least apart from some teachers because Er, they have to be trained, I mean so that they/they know how to/how to teach or how to help students be autonomous. Er (3+) I mean some teachers are not teachers.

42. GS11: <Leaning forward to GS9 ((nodding)).> (***)

***GS1:** Thank you very much.

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

INITIAL TAXONOMY OF PARTICIPATION ACTS (PAs)

Initial Taxonomy of Participation Acts (PAs)

Main categories	Subcategories		Description
Non-verbal PAs	**Bidding for turns**		Taking a turn by leading forward or raising hand/pens
	Agreeing		Showing agreement with others' opinions by nodding
	Disagreeing		Showing disagreement with others' opinions by shaking head or frowning
	Showing non-understanding		Showing non-understanding about the previous utterances or messages by shaking head or frowning
Verbal PAs	**Seeking opinions**		Asking questions to know an interlocutor's opinions or personal feelings/preference about certain academic topics.
	Expressing opinions	Agreeing/supporting other's opinions	Agreeing or supporting a previous speaker's ideas (by providing more reasons or evidence).
		Agreeing in part and offering alternatives	Agreeing partially with a previous speaker by putting forward one's own opinions or understandings of an issue.
		Disagreeing/contradicting others' opinions	Disagreeing with a previous speaker's idea by giving countering reasons or evidence.
	Seeking information		Asking questions or making requests for information about unfamiliar situations or interested topics.
	Giving information		Giving information on English learning or teaching situations of one's own cultural, educational context or interested topics.
	Making suggestions		Making suggestions about one's ideas or understandings of certain topics or issues.
	Giving warnings		Warning of troubles or dangers for one's way of thinking or doing something.
	Passing the floor		Involving others to join in discussion by redirecting turns.

Adapted from: Klippel (1984), Hatch (1992)

APPENDIX E

INITIAL TAXONOMY OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES (CSs)

Initial Taxonomy of Communication Strategies (CSs)

Main categories	Subcategories			Description
Non-verbal CSs	**Individual**			Gestures or mimes used by an individual to tackle problems without appealing for interlocutors' assistance or get messages across with individual attempts.
	Interactional			Gestures or mimes used to elicit other GSs' assistance to solve problems or to initiate interaction to achieve understandings with joint efforts.
Verbal CSs	**Individual strategies** --Strategies produced by one interlocutor (the speaker) to convey message/information to the listener(s).	**Reduction strategies** --Strategies used by one speaker to avoid the problem by changing (part of) the intended communicative goal.	**Message reduction**	Reducing the message by avoiding certain topics considered problematic or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic or content resources.
			Message abandonment	Leaving an initiated-message cut short because the speaker runs into difficulties of linguistic inadequacy or shortage of content knowledge.
			Meaning replacement	Preserving the original topic but referring to it by means of more general expression and a certain amount of vagueness.
		Achievement strategies --Speaker's individual attempts aiming to tackle communication breakdowns by manipulating and expanding his/her existing resources of linguistic and content knowledge.	**Circumlocution**	Exemplifying, illustrating, or describing a process of action about discussed topics.
			Self-reformulating	Modifying one's own output of grammatically wrong utterances into correct ones or vague utterances into more meaningful ones.
			Self-clarifying /elaborating	Building on a previous comment, enlarging on it by giving examples and adding sentences for a better understanding of discussed topics.
			Use of fillers	Using gambits to fill pauses. These are time-gaining strategies to maintain discussion running in time of difficulty.
			Mumbling	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) or (part of) a message/idea for a lack of linguistic or content resources.
			Retrieval strategies	Retrieving a lexical item by saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms before reaching an optimal form.
			Omission	Leaving a gap when not knowing a word or incapable of explaining part of a message and carry on as if it has been said.

Initial Taxonomy of Communication Strategies (CSs) (Continued)

Main categories	Subcategories		Description
Verbal CSs	**Interactional strategies** -- Strategies used by both interlocutors to negotiate meaning and achieve mutual comprehension based on what is previously said./discussed.	**Confirmation checks**	Seeking to confirm that a previous utterance or message has been conveyed. The listener is provided with the same or part of the previous utterance(s) for confirmation.
		Clarification requests	Asking for explanations of previously mentioned utterances, expressions or opinions that may not have been understood.
		Comprehension checks	Checking by a speaker whether the listener has understood what s/he has said or not.
		Other reformulating	Reformulating or modeling the previous speaker's utterance. In this strategy, the listener acting as a speaker attempts to say something in a different way hoping it will be better and clearer for the other listeners even though the previous speaker's utterances are grammatically correct.
		Other-clarifying elaborating	Explaining a previous speaker's utterances or messages by giving more examples or evidence.
		Appeal for assistance	Appealing for assistance concerning a gap of language or content of topics.
		Giving assistance	Giving linguistic assistance or knowledge on topic to help a speaker to carry his/her messages across.
		Backchannel cues	Using short utterances such as "uh-huh, yeah, right" to show understanding and involvement while listening to another or other interlocutors.

Adapted from: Færch & Kasper, 1983a; Willems, 1987; Dornyei & Scott, 1997; Williams et al., 1997; Bejarano et al., 1997; Al-Humaidi, 2002.

APPENDIX F

FINAL TAXONOMY OF PARTICIPATION ACTS (PAs)

Final Taxonomy of Participation Acts (PAs)

Main Categories	Subcategories	Description & Examples
Non-verbal PAs	**Bidding for turns (NV-PA1)**	Bidding for a turn by leaning forward, nodding or raising a hand/pen.
	Granting turns (NV-PA2)	Granting turns through nodding, hand gesture or eye-contact.
	Showing agreement (NV-PA3)	Showing agreement by nodding over a speaker's expression of opinions, asking of questions, making suggestions or acting according to an interlocutor's request(s) or reference.
	Showing understanding (NV-PA4)	Showing understanding by nodding while a speaker is giving information.
	Showing attention (NV-PA5)	Showing attention by leaning forward to or keeping eye fixed on a speaker while s/he is talking.
	Showing disagreement (NV-PA6)	Showing disagreement by shaking head or frowning over a previous speaker's opinion.
	Showing incomprehension (NV-PA7)	Showing incomprehension by shaking head or frowning over a previous speaker's utterance or message.
	Passing the floor (NV-PA8)	Passing the floor to others (usually unspecific addressees) by gesturing or looking around the talking group when no turn-bidding occurs.
Verbal PAs	**Bidding for turns (V-PA1)**	Bidding for a turn by saying "Er", Em", *"right", "well", "and", "but" or "may I ask a question?" or "Can I ask/say/add something here?"*
	Granting turns (V-PA2)	Granting turns by saying *"yes", "OK", "please", "Name, can you help to explain what is…?"or "Name, you want to say something?"*).
	Showing agreement (V-PA3)	Showing agreement over a previous speaker's opinions, warnings or suggestions by using short utterances such as *"Uhn", "I think so", "yes/yeah", and "right".*
	Showing understanding (V-PA4)	Showing understanding while a speaker is giving information by saying "Oh/yes/yeah, I see" repeating simple phrases or paraphrasing a previous speaker's message.
	Showing attention (V-PA5)	Showing attention by uttering "*Yeah" "Uhn", "Em", or "laugh"* while a speaker is talking.
	Showing disagreement (V-PA6)	Showing disagreement over a previous speaker's opinions by using short utterances like *"no", "I don't think so".*
	Showing incomprehension (V-PA7)	Showing incomprehension about a previous speaker's utterance or message by using short utterances like *"Sorry", "Again, please" or by repeating words/parts of the previous speaker's utterances with a rising intonation.*
	Showing uncertainty (V-PA8)	Showing uncertainty about one's own knowledge on a certain aspect of the discussed topic or understanding of a previous speaker's message before giving information or putting forward opinions.(E.g. "I don't know…" "I am not sure….")
	Seeking opinions (V-PA9)	Seeking for interlocutors' opinions or feelings/preference about certain academic topics. (E.g. "*What's your opinion of …?"* or *"(Name), what's your opinion about ....*"

Final Taxonomy of Participation Acts (PAs) (Continued)

Main Categories	Subcategories		Description & Examples
Verbal PAs	Giving opinions (V-PA10)	Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)	Expressing one's own opinions about certain issues related to the discussed topics. (E.g. *In my point of view…" "I don't/think …")*
		Agreeing and supporting other's opinions (V-PA10.2)	Agreeing or supporting a previous speaker's ideas by providing reasons or evidence. (E.g. *I agree with you/name because…")*
		Agreeing in part and offering alternatives (V-PA10.3)	Agreeing partially with a previous speaker by putting forward one's own opinions or understandings of certain aspects of a discussed topic. (E.g. *"Yes, that may be true, but..." "Possibly, but the problem is...*")*)
		Disagreeing/contradicting others' opinions (V-PA10.4)	Disagreeing with a previous speaker's idea by giving countering reasons or evidence. (E.g. "*I don't really agree with you because…" "I'm not sure I agree with you because...")*
	Seeking information (V-PA11)		Asking questions or making requests for information about language-based problems or topic/content-based knowledge. *(E.g. "What do you mean…?" "Can you explain when/where/with whom/what/why/how…?")*
	Giving information (V-PA12)		Giving information on language-based problems or topic/content-based knowledge. *(E.g. "It is about…" "Genre-based writing is…)*
	Making warnings (V-PA13)		Making warnings about the problems or troubles of one's ways of thinking or doing something. (E.g. *If …, you may get trouble…*)
	Making suggestions (V-PA14)		Making suggestions about how to modify one's ways of thinking or doing something. *(E.g. "It may be better if you do…" "How about doing…it may be more practical.")*
	Acknowledging (V-PA15)		Acknowledging a previous speaker's information, opinion, suggestion, warning, and etc. by saying "Thank you ("Name") for you suggestions/information…" "(Maybe) I will think about your point of view".
	Directing the discussion flow (V-PA16)		Directing the discussion flow by referring to a specific aspect of the discussed topic or to suggest a specific of the discussed topic. (E.g. "Name, can you show the slid with your research questions for us?" "May I ask you about…?" "Can we go back to… <a previously mentioned aspect of the discussed topic>"?)
	Passing the floor (V-PA17)		Passing the floor to others when no turn-bidding occurs. (E.g. "Do you have any questions/ideas/suggestions?")

Adapted from: Klippel , 1984; Hatch, 1992; DeVito, 1994; Berko, Wolvin, & Wolvin, 1995; Ruben & Stewart, 2006; He & Dai, 2006.

APPENDIX G

FINAL TAXONOMY OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES (CSs)

Final Taxonomy of Communication Strategies (CSs)

Main Categories	Subcategories			Description
Non-verbal CSs	**Individual strategies** -Gestures or mimes used by individual speaker to tackle communicative problems or achieve communicative goals.	**Reduction strategies (NV-CS1)**		Using gestures or mimes like hand waving, hand shaking to signal a quit and thereby leaving an intended-message unfinished because of linguistic inadequacy or shortage of content knowledge.
		Achievement strategies (NV-CS2)		Using gestures or mimes to express or emphasize the intended meanings.
	Interactional achievement strategies -Gestures or mimes used to elicit interlocutors' assistance to solve communicative problems.	**Appeal for assistance (NV-CS3)**		Using gesturers or eye-contacts to appeal for interlocutors' assistance when running into difficulties of linguistic inadequacy or shortage of content knowledge.
Verbal CSs	**Individual strategies** -Strategies produced by one interlocutor (the speaker) to convey message or information to the listener(s).	**Reduction strategies** --Strategies used by one speaker to avoid the problem by changing (part of) his/her intended communicative goal.	**Message abandonment (V-CS1)**	Leaving an initiated-message cut short when running into linguistic inadequacy, shortage of content knowledge or introducing a new aspect of the discussion topic to maintain the discussion floor.
			Message reduction (V-CS2)	Reducing the message by avoiding certain aspects of a topic considered problematic or by leaving out a specific aspect of an intended message due to a lack of linguistic or content resources or because of its irrelevance to discussed topic.
		Achievement strategies -- Strategies used by one speaker to achieve his/her intended communicative goal.	**Self-reformulating (V-CS3)**	Modifying one's own output of grammatically wrong utterances into correct ones or vague utterances into more meaningful ones.
			Self-elaborating (V-CS4)	Building on a previous comment, enlarging on it by giving examples and adding details for a better understanding of discussed topics.
			Time-gaining strategies (V-CS5)	Using fillers/gambits like "Er", "Uh", "actually", "probably" with obvious pauses (more than 3 seconds) or observably doing self-repetition to fill pauses (more than 3 seconds) in order to maintain the flow of communication.

Final Taxonomy of Communication Strategies (CSs) (Continued)

Main Categories	Subcategories			Description
Verbal CSs	**Individual strategies** -Strategies produced by one interlocutor (the speaker) to convey message or information to the listener(s).	**Achievement strategies** **--** Strategies used by one speaker to achieve his/her intended communicative goal.	**Mumbling (V-CS6)**	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly (part of) a word or (part of) a message for a lack of linguistic/content resources or a competition of turns in talking.
			Retrieval strategies (V-CS7)	Retrieving a lexical item by saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms in order to reach an optimal form.
	Interactional achievement strategies -Strategies used by a speaker to negotiate with his/her listener(s) about meanings of certain aspects of a discussion topic and thereby to establish a common ground about a communicative goal.	**Confirmation checks (V-CS8)**		Utterances that made by a listener seeking confirmation about the accuracy of his/her understanding about an interlocutor's previously delivered utterance or message.
		Comprehension checks (V-CS9)		Utterances that made by a speaker attempting to check whether or not the listener has understood what s/he has said.
		Clarification requests (V-CS10)		Utterances that made by listeners seeking clarification when they haven't clearly understood the previous speaker's utterances or opinions.
		Appeal for assistance (V-CS11)		Appealing for assistance concerning a gap of language or content of topics.

Adapted from: Færch & Kasper (1983a), Willems (1987), Dornyei and Scott (1997), Williams et al. (1997), Bejarano et al. (1997), Al-Humaidi (2002)

APPENDIX H

A SAMPLE OF PAs AND CSs IDENTIFICATION

A Sample of PAs and CSs Identification

Course: Seminar on Problems and Issues in Language Teaching

Presenter: GS1

Topic: Helping self-access centre users to become autonomous learners

Length of Discussion: 6`55``

Turn	Speaker	Verbal utterances/ non-verbal behavior	PAs	CSs
GS1: … So, over to you. (000)				
1	**L:**	**(xxx) any questions?**		
2	GS11:	***a) Raising her pen for a turn.***	**a) Bidding for turns NV-PA1**	
3	**L**	**Yes (offering GS11 a turn.)**		
4	GS11:	***a) I want/ I want to know,*** as the title of your presentation -- encouraging self access learners, and ***in your opinion who can help?***	**a) Seeking opinions (V-PA9)**	
5	Karok:	***< a) Leaning forward to GS11.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
6	***GS1**	***a) I don't think there's any question, in my/my view that the*** only people who can realistically help at the moment are the teachers.	**a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)**	

7	GS11:	***< a) Nodding.>***	**a) Showing agreement (NV-PA3)**	
8	GS11:	***a) How about your attitude toward the teachers?*** (1) *The teachers can help a lot of students to help themselves?*	**a) Seeking opinions (V-PA9)**	**(1) Self-elaborating (V-CS4)**
9	***GS1**	***a)*** (1) ***I think/ I think it's, I think that as most/ most (3+) of the writers I've read say, this is not a short process.*** (2) *It's not a question of showing somebody how to do it. It's a question of changing somebody's attitude and it's not realistic to expect either the self access staff or the counsellors in the self access centre to carry out that function because they don't have the continued contact with the teachers Er, with the students.* The only people who have long term contact with the students and who really can be of influence are the class teachers in my view.	**a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)**	**(1) Time-gaining strategies (V-CS5);** **(2) Self-elaborating (V-CS4)**
10	GS6:	***< a) Leaning forward to GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
11	GS11:	***< a) Watching GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
12	GS11:	***a)You mentioned the/the change of attitude in the lecturers and also the students?***	**a) Seeking information (V-PA11)**	
13	***GS1**	***a) Yes***.	**a) Giving information (V-PA12)**	
14	GS11:	***a) Who should change first?***	**a) Seeking opinions (V-PA9)**	
15	***GS1**	***a) I Ohaa, who should change first? I'm not sure that the teachers actually need to change. b) I think most of***	**a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)**	

		(xxx).		
16	GS11:	***a) But*** *(1)* ***this is my topic/this is my topic (3+), the teachers' attitude towards their role.*** (***)	**a) Giving information (V-PA12)**	**(1) Time-gaining strategies (V-CS5);**
17	***GS1**	***a) Well, well, b) that's something we should talk about later, Ohaa.*** **c) I think certainly I detected in some of the teachers I talked about, a scepticisms rather than/rather than opposition and there's a feeling that it's not necessarily a bad idea** but/but a doubt as to whether it's practical and whether it will work. (1) ***d) But there are other people I spoke to who have been very positive about it, who accept their own failings in not being, not having time or perhaps the wherewithal to actually help the students to/ to take on board what's in there.***	**a) Bidding for turns (V-PA1);** **b) Directing the discussion flow (V-PA16)** **c) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)** **d) Giving information (V-PA12)**	**(1) Self-elaborating (V-CS4)**
18	GS6:	***< a) Leaning forward to GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
19	Karok:	***< a) Leaning forward to GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
20	GS2	***< a) Leaning forward to GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
21	GS11:	***< a) Watching GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
22	**Uncounted GS:**	**(Seeking opinions) Er, so Er, you think except the teachers. Do you think the counsellor itself, like counselling services can help the students; I mean the users to understand what is the purpose of learning at the self access centre?**		
23	GS6:	***< a) Leaning forward to the uncounted GS.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
24	GS2	***< a) Watching the uncounted GS.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	

25	*GS1	***a) It would be very nice if they could. The counsellors I fear are*** in a slightly difficult position at the moment. (1) *I mean one of the things that were said to me is that in order to have any involvement with the students; the counsellors have to act almost like teachers. They have to actually get up out of their seat and go and talk to the students. If they sit in t*heir seat and wait for the students to come to them, they won't do it. ***b) And one of the things that are mentioned in the handout there is this question that you can't see training for self access as imposing a series of/of attitudes.*** You've got to get them to see the benefits of it. And if the counsellors adopt the role as effectively being teachers of the self access learning skills then they're breaching the whole principle of (2) *self, of/of autonomous learning* because you're teaching somebody to do something which essentially is against teaching. ***c) So I think it would be impossible for the counsellors to take on that role.***	**a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)** **b) Giving information (V-PA12);** **c) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)**	**(1) Self-elaborating (V-CS4)** **(2) Self-reformulating (V-CS3)**
26	GS2	***< a) Watching GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
27	GS11:	***< a) Watching GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
28	GS6:	***< a) Leaning forward to GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
29	GS5	***< a) Leaning forward to GS1.>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	

30	GS4	< ***a) Leaning forward to GS1***.>	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
31	**Uncounted GS:**	**So they should Er adopt the ideas of the roles of teachers?**		
32	GS6:	< ***a) Leaning forward to the uncounted GS***.>	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
33	***GS1**	***a) No, I don't think they should because I think that*** would breach the whole purpose of the counsellor in the self access centre which is somebody to help learners I mean users, what to do, not someone to intervene and try to direct either the learning or the attitudes of the people in the self access centre. And (1) *I mean that's as I say is very much what/what/there's one particular quote in there from, I think Susan Sheerer who says that you can't adopt this attitude of 'we know best – we know how to do this - we are going to tell you how to do it' because that's/ because that's all we're doing,* is continue to spoon-feed students with attitudes, and what we essentially want is for them to realize that this is something they can do on their own.	**a) Disagreeing/contradicting others' opinions (VPA10.4)**	**(1) Self-elaborating (V-CS4)**
34	GS3	< ***a) Watching GS1***.>	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
35	GS6:	< ***a) Leaning forward to GS1***.>	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
36	GS11:	< **a) Watching *GS1*. b) *((nodding)).***>	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)** **b) Showing agreement (NV-PA3)**	
37	**L:**	**Right. I agree with *GS1*.. I think he's right … Think about the role of the students themselves … (Summarises and raises 3 questions for further thinking)**		

		<Class members all pay attention to the lecturer.>-		
38	***GS1**	***a) ((Waving his pen to the class)) b) But can I just quickly ask, I think I've got about a minute left. c) Can I just ask people here whether they feel that teaching or training this idea of autonomy does actually threaten your role as teachers.* (1) *Do you think you will find it more difficult to teach people who are, who have an autonomous mind set than our compliant students who sit there and listen to every word that we say. Is that something that you feel?***	**a) Bidding for turns** **▯ NV-PA1▯ ;** **b) Bidding for turns (V-PA1);** **c) Seeking opinions (V-PA9)**	**(1)** **Self-reformulating** **(V-CS3)**
39	GS2	***< a) Watching GS1..>***	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5)**	
40	GS11:	***a) We should feel threatened, it is threatening.*** (1) *I mean for traditional we just prepare for the lesson and {but} for autonomous learning we should be prepared to accept or receive questions we cannot predict. That's, this will be more demanding.* (***)	**a) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)**	**(1) Self-reformulating (V-CS3);**
41	GS9	***a) So*** (1) *Er (3+),* **b) I think, I feel that** *Er, teachers themselves they were not trained to be autonomous before at* least apart from some teachers because Er, (2) *they have to be trained, I mean so that they/they know how to/how to teach or how to help students be autonomous.* (3) *Er (3+) I mean some teachers are not teachers.*	**a) Bidding for turns (V-PA1);** **b) Expressing one's own opinions (V-PA10.1)**	**(1) Time-gaining strategies (V-CS5);** **(2) Self-reformulating (V-CS3);** **(3) Time-gaining strategies (V-CS5)**
42	GS11:	***< a) Leaning forward to GS9 b) ((nodding)).>*** (***)	**a) Showing attention (NV-PA5);**	

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